

ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT  
IN SOUTH KOREA:  
DEVELOPING A HOLISTIC MANAGEMENT PLANNING  
MODEL FOR BURIED ARCHAEOLOGICAL SITES

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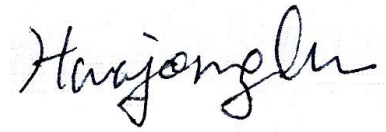
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A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "Hwa Jong Lee". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style with a large initial 'H' and a long, sweeping underline.

## Abstract

As the standard of living rose in South Korea a wider range of people became interested in archaeological heritage and its management. Specifically, since the 1990s, rescue archaeology became an issue of wider social concern: there was a paradigm shift from simply the protection of archaeological sites, under pressure from development, to the use of sites as a social resource. This transformation presented a number of challenges regarding unexcavated archaeological sites in the planning process, decision-making on preservation *in-situ* (as opposed to 'preservation by record'), and the nature of display or reburial.

This research aimed to develop a management planning model to face these challenges. The research focused on archaeological sites, partly because of their ability to engage social issues in contemporary South Korea, and partly because of the complexity of managing the resource, due to the 'invisibility' of unexcavated archaeology and the often fragile nature of the remains.

In order to build this model, the research explored international theories and approaches, and set these within the context of South Korean Archaeological Resource Management, to produce an intellectual framework. The research explores four broad topics – who, why, what, and how – through complex issues such as identity, ownership, participation, assessment, conservation/protection, interpretation and presentation. The model involves principles for management



(including participatory planning, transparent assessment of values, and defined management strategies). This leads to a road map for planning: Stage 1 (Identifying) explores activities such as team building, documentation and vision, under the principle of participatory planning; Stage 2 (Assessment) approaches the assessment of values and significance, and the role of decision-making and governance, using principles of transparency; Stage 3 (Responding) develops approaches to creating management strategies, specific to time and spatial scales; and Stage 4 (Reviewing and Revision) investigates the processes of monitoring and review, within a flexible framework.

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# **1 Introduction**

## **1.1 Background**

Many professionals have argued that all 'archaeological heritage is a fragile and non-renewable cultural resource (see Chapter 1.2). Land use must therefore be controlled and developed in order to minimise the destruction of the archaeological heritage' (ICOMOS and ICAHM 1990). Although this is the basic premise accepted by experts in heritage the field, it is not a premise which can be simply invoked in all matters related to heritage management in the contemporary world. The management of heritage is a theme which requires more diverse consideration in the 21<sup>st</sup> century; for instance 'Right and responsibilities', 'Law and policies' , 'Environment, heritage and quality of life', 'Sustainable use of cultural heritage', 'cultural heritage and economic activities' and etc. (Faro 2005). This demands new ideas, thinking and approaches for the management of heritage. Consequently, 'investigation of heritage has become a distinct research area within the Arts and Humanities' (Carman and Sørensen 2009, 3). This research area has become increasingly focused on the role of archaeological resources in a contemporary context (Smith 2004, 6-7), as interest in culture and history in modern society has increased. As a result, the field of Archaeological Resource Management (in some parts of the world called Archaeological Heritage Management, Cultural Resource Management, or even Public Archaeology) has become an important field in modern archaeology.

Many have also argued that archaeological resources contribute to the formation of identities of certain groups, societies, regions or even nations, concomitantly, many scholars have debated the diverse issues related to the relationship between archaeological resources and identity. Aplin (2002, 10), for example, insists that 'shared heritage allows us to see ourselves as members of a group and society'; while Cleere (1989, 8) argues that 'archaeological heritage management has an ideological basis in establishing cultural identity'. Other scholars have argued for the importance of archaeological resources in structuring and maintaining identity (e.g. Carman 2002, 73-75; Smith 2004, 6-7, Sørensen and Carman 2009, 3). This importance also demonstrates the applicability of protecting archaeological resources for identity in general (see Chapter 2.3.2). This applicability can be justified by the diverse values inherent in all archaeological resources, such as traditional values (e.g. cultural and historical values) and contemporary values (e.g. social and economic values) (see Chapter 2.4.1.2).

In line with such international trends, archaeological resources have also been recognised as a crucial resource for identity formation and reformation in South Korea (see Chapter 4.3). Since the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, improvements in the quality of life, against a background of economic development, have led to an increased interest in culture and history on the part of the Korean public (e.g. Park, Young-Bok 2012; Kim, Young-Han 2010, 8; Kim, Hong-Real 2005, 85). For instance, the number of visitors to Jeongokri Festival has increased year on year since the first

festival in 1993 (see Chapter 3.1.1.2). In the late of 20<sup>th</sup> century, Korean archaeology changed significantly, with increased professionalization and a diversification of research fields, to include fields such as rescue archaeology in 1990s (see Chapter 1.4). In such circumstances, the protection of archaeological resources has become a critical topic of interest in Korean archaeology specifically, and Korean society in general (Chapter 1.4). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the paradigm of South Korean archaeology has been transformed from 'the protection of archaeological sites against economic development' to 'the protection and *use* of archaeological sites'. The challenge in the management of the sites now is to decide how this is to be achieved.

In recent years, many professionals in the field of Archaeological Resource Management have emphasised the role of the use of management planning models in order to deal with a diversity of issues and challenges. As a result, diverse management planning models and approaches have been produced (e.g. Australia ICOMOS, 1992; Pearson and Sullivan, 1995; Hall and McArthur, 1996; Demas, 2002; Mason, 2002). It is fair to say that these models and approaches are founded on an analogous intellectual context that focuses on the management of diverse values beyond the traditional notion of management, which tends to focus on physical or tangible dimensions of archaeological resources (e.g. value-based approaches, see Chapter 2.1). However, archaeological resources also have different characteristics - depending on diverse factors such as time, scale, location, and natural conditions

- and are situated in different economic, social and political circumstances. As such, it is vital that any approach drawn from international models and practices is tailored to the specific circumstances in South Korea.

In South Korea, however, the field of Archaeological Resource Management is still in its infancy. Consequently there is little in the way academic studies to support it and a model for holistic management planning has not been advanced, whether by professionals or organisations. It could be said that the field of Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea began in the 1960s with the enactment of *Cultural Heritage Protection Act* in 1962 (see Chapter 4.1). This legal framework, however, does not cover a wide range of issues and topics. Although many Korean scholars began to discuss the issues and challenges relevant to the management of archaeological resources, and the legal system was amended to reflect this, the fundamental context of management has not been properly considered. Consequently, the relevant principles and approaches for management planning are absent. However, now is the time to discuss and build up the principles and approaches for South Korean context. Since 1990s, South Korea entered an era of rescue archaeology (Chapter 1.4); consequently many issues and challenges have emerged (Chapter 4). Crucial social issues beyond the field of archaeology have emerged, including ownership, identity, balanced decision-making between development and protection, effective presentation and interpretation, etc. (Chapter 4). For this reason, the goal of this



research is to develop a holistic management model for archaeological resources within the specific context of South Korea.

## 1.2 The nature of buried archaeological sites and their management

This research will focus on buried archaeological sites, in part because of the typical nature of buried sites and the current circumstances in South Korea.

Buried sites are perhaps the most difficult type of archaeological resource to manage due to their typical invisibility and fragility. In fact, there are many different types of archaeological resources that are defined according to form, material, location and function. Darvill (1987, 6), for example, divided archaeological evidence into three broad types: standing remains, earthworks and buried features. The term “buried archaeological site” in this research is applied to both ‘buried features’ (soil-covered remains that have no visible surface trace at ground level) and ‘earthworks’ (soil-covered remains of any sort, which can be seen as surface undulations at ground level).

Due to their apparent invisibility and fragility, buried sites are the most complicated and difficult type of archaeological resource to protect, present and interpret. The invisibility of buried sites means that they can seldom be identified without archaeological work such as excavation, prospection, or field survey. It is generally accepted, nevertheless, that archaeological work, particularly excavation, is not immune from causing damage to the resource; as such work should be regarded as a form of destruction. Even if part of a site remains

aboveground – perhaps in the form of a ruin or earthwork – the extent and nature of the site are often not immediately evident. As such, it is often hard to understand the values of buried sites. This lack of awareness can easily lead to damage or destruction. Even when buried sites are discovered, the management of the site is difficult because of the lack of information and the consequential lack of understanding, regarding the values inherent in the site. Decisions regarding which sites, or which part(s) of a site, to protect are heavily reliant on the values related to the site (e.g. see Chapter 2.2 and 2.3.2). For this reason, the management of buried archaeological sites often involves archaeological excavation in order to gain information for a rational decision-making process. Excavation, however, often exposes the issue of fragility. Although all archaeological resources are fragile and non-renewable, buried sites often become more fragile when they are exposed by excavation. Such fragility is a matter of concern, not least in the use of the archaeological resource. In modern society, archaeological sites have been used as a critical resource for reinforcing values such as identity. For this purpose, sites are often expected to be open to the public, even though they may be in a fragile state. This means that the very delicate evidence, an important medium for the presentation and interpretation of the diverse values of a site, can be exposed to danger. It is necessary to present an excavated site in an open condition to display the site, if interpretation is to be adequate (e.g. Wheeler 1954, 224; Copeland 2004, 132;

Jameson 2008 etc.). There is, however, little doubt that site management is also highly difficult work when a site is retained in an open state.

### 1.3 Site discovery in South Korea

The discovery of buried archaeological sites is also a complicated task, and, in South Korea, is it perhaps made more difficult for their location. A variety of archaeological methods have been employed to discover buried archaeological sites, including trial trenching, aerial photography, geophysical survey, topographic survey, field walking, and the analysis of historic records (Darvill 1987, 8-12). In South Korea, the discovery of buried sites has primarily been undertaken through trial trenching, field survey, field walking, and analysing historic records. Reliance on these approaches has largely been necessary because aerial photography and geophysical survey have seldom worked well both because of soil conditions and the depth of burial. Shin, Hee-Kwon (2012, 287-288), a Korean archaeologist, pointed out that 'the characteristic of buried sites is *uncertainty of existence* due to location (under the ground)'. In case of *Sosadong*, which is one of the largest scale of Bronze Age settlements in South Korea (Lee, Hwa-Jong and Kang, Byeong-Hak 2008 and Chapter 3.2), only a few artefacts dating to the Goryeo Dynasty (10~15<sup>th</sup> century; see Figure 93) were discovered in the initial field survey (field walking), without any evidence on the ground (ICPHY, 2003, Figure 1). Archaeological investigations in South Korea usually follow this pattern; for this reason, aerial photography and geographical survey are not generally favoured by Korean archaeologists. Techniques

involving Geographic Information System (GIS) in the management of buried archaeological sites, including Archaeological Predict Modelling (e.g. Korea Cultural Properties Investigation and Research Association (KCPIRA) 2009, Barnes 2015, 35) are still in their infancy. Thus, South Korean archaeology still makes use of traditional fieldwork methods - including field walking, trial trench and historic recording - rather than newer research techniques such as GIS.

Consequently, even in the case of known buried archaeological sites, the nature of sites often remains vague until further archaeological investigation has been conducted. For instance, between 1996 and 2010, all 172 local governments compiled the *Cultural Remains Distribution Maps* in order to disseminate archaeological data to the public. Much of the evidence for this project was gathered by field survey and field walking, with the archaeological discoveries that were made using these approaches, alongside the analysis of historical records, acting as the main sources of information, acting as the main sources of information (Lee, Jin-Young *et al*/2011). However, even where field survey identifies the existence of a site, it is often a challenge to identify the nature and character of its buried remains, including their scale, boundary and period of these remains. According to the *Cultural Remains Distribution Maps*, 87,859 sites have been discovered and recorded, but – of these – approximately 78% are classified as 'Remains Distribution Area' or 'Unclassified sites' (Lee, Jin-Young *et al*/2011, 22-23), meaning that their nature or character is either not specified or uncertain.



Figure 1: The artefacts distribution area and discovered artefacts in initial field survey (field walking) in *Sosadong* (ICHPY 2003).

To sum up, in order to understand buried sites, it is often necessary to undertake further investigation by archaeological excavation. In terms of the management of buried archaeological sites, it is fair to say that decision making is more difficult than is the case for the management of other types of archaeological resource. As previously noted, these difficulties arise due to uncertainty in the initial stages of management, particularly uncertainty related to whether excavation is necessary and what scale. In addition, initial decision-making should be considered alongside post-excavation treatment, including the manner of protection – e.g. selection among *in-situ*, removal and rebuilding, or recording and destruction – and approaches to presentation and interpretation.

## 1.4 The growth of rescue archaeology in South Korea

In recent decades, the management of buried archaeological sites has been one of the most contested issues in South Korean archaeology. Land development, the most prominent of the emergent challenges to the protection and management of buried archaeological resources, has led to the growth of rescue archaeology in South Korea, as it has in many other parts of the world. Rescue archaeology has been the primary motivation behind the excavation of a large number of sites in South Korea. The number of excavations increased dramatically after *Enforcement Decree of the Protection of Cultural Properties Act* was revised in 1999. The Decree stated that archaeological investigations must take place before any construction work of more than 30,000 m<sup>2</sup> takes place, and that all of the costs of the investigation have to be met by the developers (Article 43 in the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* and Article 4 in the *Enforcement Decree of the Protection of Cultural Properties Act 1962*). In 2010 the Korean Archaeological Society (KAS) produced statistics on archaeological excavations taking place within South Korea (Shin, Kyeong-Chul *et al*/2010), these statistics showed that large numbers of archaeological investigations were carried out in the 2000's, as compared with earlier decades (Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4, Figure 5 and Figure 6).

Year	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970
Number of excavation	5	6	14	18	19	17	17	16	25	15
Year	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
Number of excavation	13	19	27	27	37	24	36	34	24	38

Year	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Number of excavation	28	55	66	56	50	45	47	49	62	76
Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Number of excavation	110	99	92	112	143	167	247	242	309	347
Year	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Number of excavation	469	598	704	1004	1152	1300	1259	1382	1605	599

Figure 2: The number of excavation in South Korean between 1960 and 2010 (Shin, Kyeong-Chul *at e/2010*, 7).

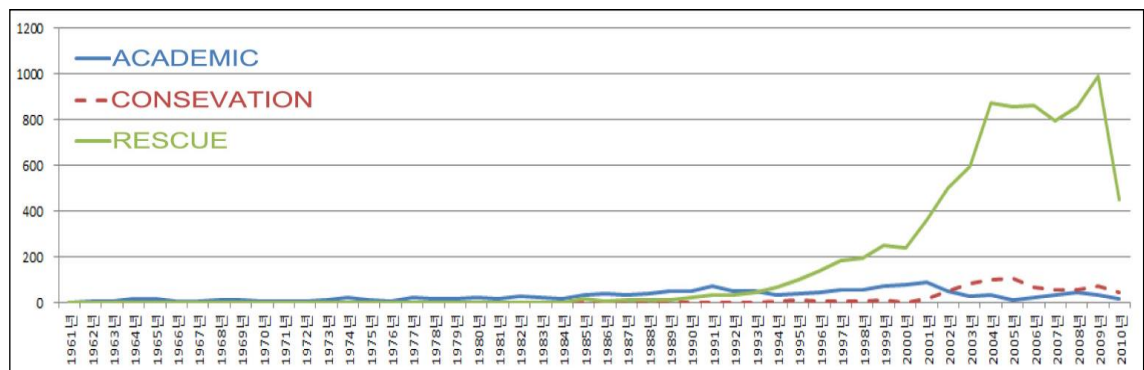


Figure 3: The number of excavation by purpose: Academic, Conservation and Rescue excavation<sup>1</sup> (Shin, Kyeong-Chul *at e/2010*, 9).

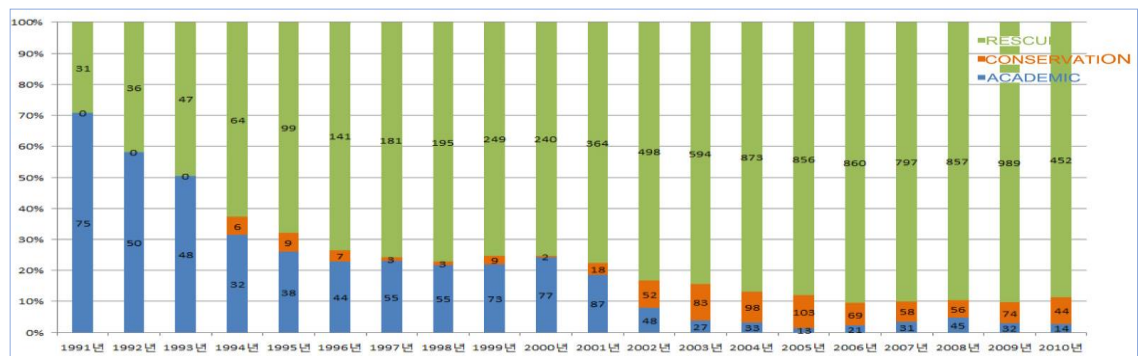


Figure 4: The percentage of excavation by purposes between 1991 and 2010 (Shin, Kyeong-Chul *at e/2010*, 10).

Year	1986-1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
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<sup>1</sup> The Academic purpose of archaeological excavation means the excavation designed for pure archaeological studies. The excavated sites in the purpose is mostly protected by *in-site* and reburial; the conservation purpose means the excavation to gather information prior to conservation work such as repairing, restoration, rebuilding and etc. Rescue excavation is developer-funded excavation for a development project.

<i>In-situ</i> <sup>2</sup>	10	6	6	12	17	20	38	31
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<sup>2</sup> 'In-situ' and 'removal' are classic methods that are employed for the protection of archaeological sites in South Korea post-excavation. The former deviates, however, from the European idea about – preservation *in-situ*. The latter entails the preservation of the archaeological site in its original state, avoiding destruction or damage by development, as well as by archaeological activities including archaeological excavation (e.g. Willems 2012, 1); in contrast, preservation *in-situ* in South Korea generally includes preserving excavated archaeological sites in the original location after the excavation, and – occasionally – without excavation having taken place. Naturally, *in-situ* preservation tends to combine reburial in buried archaeological sites to protect and recover the original state of the sites. 'Removal' should be understood as the removal of selected archaeological evidence from its original location, and its relocation to a new place after the excavation has taken place. Removal is often employed to protect important archaeological sites, or parts of sites, after rescue excavation: acting as a mediated option for *in-situ* (see *Sosadong* Case study, Chapter 3.2.1.2). The only other option is recording in the South Korean legislative system which recommends to select the most appropriate preservation option on a case-by-case basis, using a judgement of the importance and values of the excavated site (see Figure 60 and This ambiguity regarding the assessment of diverse values is more serious in rescue archaeology. Since the conflicts in rescue archaeology in South Korea in the 1990s, decision makers have tried to improve the process. As a result, a new legal framework, *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, has been enacted. This new law also recommends choosing one of the following protection methods depending on the value of the resources involved: *in-situ* (including reburial), removal, and recording, as does the previous act, the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*. For this, the new law recommends the values assessment criteria (Figure 60 and Figure 61). This is potentially a good change in terms of transparent decision-making, but there is still an issue: less consideration of socio-economic value and more focus on tangible remains with traditional values. As Figure 60 shows, the criteria consist of three categories: characteristics, condition, and site potential. The "characteristics" of a site are one of several typical traditional values that are discovered by professionals, such as historical, archaeological and academic values, cultural values, etc. "Condition" relates to a site's physical integrity, and can include a site's tangible remains. Although the "potential" category deals with socio-economic values, it tends to be biased towards monetary value. To sum up, these criteria still underestimate or overlook those intangible factors relating to archaeological resources, and the contemporary values that are formed and created by the general public.

The assessment of the values relating to archaeological sites should be

sophisticated and rational for the transparency of decision-making. For this, the

assessment in *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*



employed a numeric-based measuring system (Figure 61), but this is also problematic. The basis of this system is a quantitative assessment of values, but such a thing is almost impossible because of the dynamic nature of values. Values are constantly transformed by changing circumstances and the dynamic composition of interested parties. Consequently, it is extremely difficult for professionals to assess them in a short temporal moment, such as at an Expert Meeting in rescue excavation contexts.

Characteristics of site	1) Historic value: the importance for historical research 2) Time: the period which the site represents 3) Rarity 4) Locality: representing the specific local area
Condition of site	1) Interior of the site: integrity 2) Exterior of the site: integrity 3) Landscape: location
Potential for use	1) Accessibility: physical access 2) Usability: potential for education 3) Balance with landscape: location of site-potential for tourism resources 4) Relationship with other resources: potential to link to other tourism resources

Figure 60: Assessment criteria form in *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*.

Percentage 20%.

Assessment article	Detailed article	The weighting by grade			Overall for decision	
		Good	Normal	Bad	<i>In-situ</i>	Removal
Total		100.00	60.00	20.00	74.31	63.92
Characteristic of site	Sub-total	(56.30)	(33.78)	(11.26)	43.09	37.80
	History	(22.10)	(13.26)	(4.42)	17.26	15.26
	Time	(12.10)	(7.26)	(2.42)	9.47	8.31
	Rarity	(15.20)	(9.12)	(3.04)	10.83	9.18
	Region	(6.90)	(4.14)	(1.38)	5.53	4.85
Condition of site	Sub-total	(20.08)	(12.48)	(4.16)	14.98	13.39
	Interior	(12.50)	(7.50)	(2.50)	9.43	8.58
	Exterior	(4.08)	(2.88)	(0.96)	3.25	2.83
	Landscape	(3.50)	(2.10)	(0.70)	2.30	1.98
Use of site	Sub-total	(22.90)	(13.74)	(4.58)	16.24	12.93
	Accessibility	(5.80)	(3.48)	(1.16)	4.53	3.78

Removal	10	1	5	8	15	15	29	21
Total	20	7	11	20	32	35	67	52
Percentage of total excavations	2%	3%	5%	6%	9%	7%	11%	7%
Year	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	
<i>In-situ</i>	44	34	17	15	26	9	2	
Removal	29	16	10	17	40	20	13	
Total	73	50	27	32	66	29	15	

	Usability	(8.40)	(5.04)	(1.68)	5.90	4.71
	Relation with the area	(4.30)	(2.58)	(0.86)	2.90	2.20
	Relation with resources	(4.40)	(2.64)	(0.88)	2.91	2.34

Figure 61: Measuring system in *Buried Heritage Protection and Investigation Law 2011*.

How effectively does the recently revised legal framework deal with the issues that are relevant in South Korea today?							
Answer Options	Very good	Good	Medium	Bad	Very Bad	Rating Average	Response Count
	0.0%	7.7%	43.6%	41.0%	7.7%	3.49	39
	8	5	5	14	5		
Answered question							39
Skipped question							0

Figure 62: Questionnaire responses regarding the effectiveness of the current legal framework.

Not surprisingly, the system does not achieve the purpose that it is designed for: the criteria seem to be seen merely as a convenient decision-making methodology, rather than the means by which rational and transparent decisions can be made. Accordingly, even Korean professionals believe that *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011* is not effective in dealing with the issues that are important today (see Figure 62).

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Percentage of total excavations	7%	4%	2%	3%	5%	2%	3%	
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Figure 5: The number of sites preserved by *in-situ* or removal after excavations (Shin, Kyeong-Chul *et al* 2010, 18).

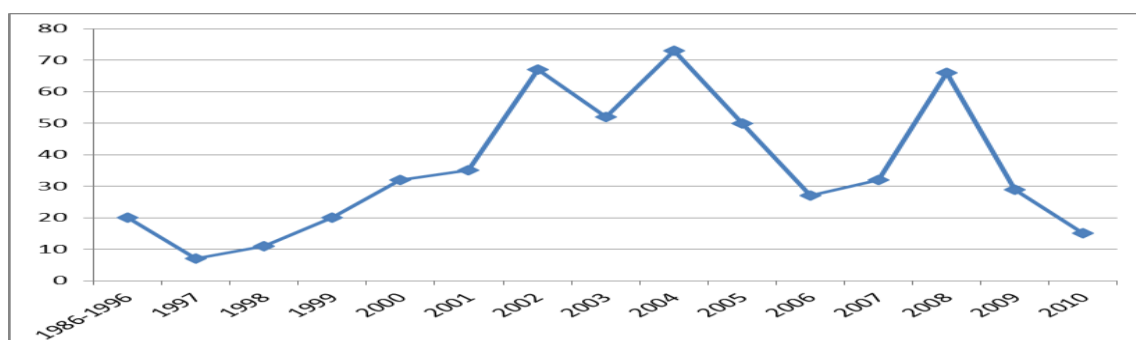


Figure 6: The number of *in-situ* or removal sites after excavation (produced by Figure 5).

A key issue is that the number of excavations exceeds the capacity of South Korean archaeologists. Park, Sun-Bal (2007, 4; 103) estimated that the number of Korean archaeologists who are capable of working on excavation sites amounted to approximately 1,000 in 2006, however this number is c. 400 short of the 1,300 excavations that took place during this period<sup>3</sup>. While these figures are only estimates, there is little doubt that the professional capacity that they represent is insufficient. For archaeologists, the issue at stake is the quality of the excavations taking place (Park, Sun-Bal 2004 and Shim, Kwang-Ju 2005), particularly given that archaeology has yielded huge amounts of archaeological information for academic research. This was also an issue in the United States in the 1970s;

<sup>3</sup> Park, Sun-Bal (2007, 102) estimated this shortage of archaeologists based on extent of excavation, excavation period and the number of field archaeologists. In 2006, the number of excavations was slightly higher than 1,000 (Figure 2) and the average extent of an excavation between 2001 and 2005 was 31, 400 m<sup>2</sup> which would not be affordable for an archaeologist. One can speculate that each excavation requires more than one field archaeologist is required for an excavation, however even if this were not the case the 1,000 field archaeologists 'available' includes archaeologists who is enable to full time work in field such as teaching staffs in universities (Park, Sun-Bal 2007, 103). He argued that this overload of excavation can cause an issue of quality of archaeological excavation (Park, Sun-Bal 2004).

Jameson (2004, 38) argued that 'by the 1970s, with so much work being done by so many people, one of the major issues addressed was the need for the establishment of written standards and a code of ethics for professional archaeologists in both the public and private sectors'. As a result, in 1974 the Society of Professional Archaeologists was created, going on to develop a qualification standard based on having an academic degree, supervisory research experience and the institutional standard, including office facilities, allocation of space, research libraries, security systems, and so on (Jameson 2004, 38-40). In South Korea, where each archaeologist has to carry out more than one excavation on a full-time basis in order to accommodate the large number of rescue excavations, not all Korean archaeologists are equally qualified to make appropriate decisions in the field. This is especially significant because the pressures of time and budget caused by rescue archaeology development projects, as well as the typical invisibility and fragility of buried sites under archaeological excavation - demands rapid and effective decision-making (e.g. Bale 2015, 320-322). In order to deal with this qualification issue, the Cultural Heritage Administration of Korea (CHA), a national governmental body which is in charge of protecting archaeological heritage, has attempted to classify the qualification level of excavators according to Head Researcher, Senior Researcher, Researcher and Assistant Researcher, depending on the individual's experience of archaeological investigation, and in order to assign different responsibilities and roles in the excavation to each qualification-level; for

example, Head Researcher and Senior Researcher are able to carry out excavations on their own, however the other classes should be supervised by the Head Researcher or Senior Researcher in the field (Article 14-2 in *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*). This means that a Senior Researcher should be in the field on a full-time basis during the excavation, although this is almost impossible due to the large number of rescue excavations taking place simultaneously; in reality, a Head Researcher or Senior Researcher is responsible for several excavations each, on a part-time basis. In other words, the manpower shortage has affected the quality of excavation in South Korea. This is of significance when one considers the possibility of rational decision-making in relation to the management of buried sites in South Korea.

Due to the nature of buried sites and the difficulties of their discovery prior to the commencement of development, significant conflicts and issues have emerged in relation to their management. These primarily stem from the pressures on rescue archaeology to support rapid economic development, and on the problems of *in-situ* protection for excavated sites. In the South Korean legal framework, post excavation treatment has three options: *in-situ*, removal and recording (Article 14 in *Enforcement Ordinance for The Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*). The number of sites protected by *in-situ* or removal – the former often means that the excavated site is covered by soil or earthen material in the original location of its discovery, and the latter means that a selected part of excavated site or archaeological remains is

removed from its original location and relocated or, sometimes, rebuilt in new location post-excavation – has increased since 2000 (Figure 2 and Figure 3). However this still constitutes less than 10% of the sites excavated in the period between 2000 and 2010, with most archaeological sites were destroyed after excavation (referred to as ‘preservation by record’ in the rescue archaeology protocol in South Korea). In fact, many South Korean archaeologists regard all rescue excavation as the process by which detailed information regarding a site is recorded prior to development, and view as mandatory the publication of the excavation report as the mode of ‘preservation by record’; the CHA states (CHA webpage) that ‘the excavation report is a process to record excavated information’. Such a ‘dig and run’ type of archaeological excavation represents Korean archaeologists’ approach to the avoidance of conflict between protection and development in rescue archaeology.

The small number of *in-situ* preservation sites previously noted (Figure 5 and Figure 6) is also partly the result of the typical invisibility and fragility of buried sites. Archaeological investigation, according to the law, requires a large amount of time and money due to invisibility by location (i.e. underground), while *in-situ* and removal are more time-consuming and expensive as methods of preservation (as compared with recording). In fact, the issue of time is greater than that of budgetary concerns: it is generally accepted that archaeological excavation itself is not an unreasonable expense within the total budget of a development project; excavation accounts for only a very small portion of the

total development budget. For instance, the Archaeological and Historic Preservation Act in the United States (1974) notes that 'up to 1 percent of project funds could be used to pay for salvage work' (Jameson 2004, 31-32). At *Sosadong* (see Chapter 3.2), the total excavation cost was less than 2,000,000,000 won (c £1,100,000<sup>4</sup>), which is c 0.05 percent of the total project fund of 39,600,000,000 won (c £22,000,000). For developers the issue of time is a serious one because once a rescue excavation has started, the development project is necessarily interrupted and delayed by the excavation. It is this time delay that is most damaging for the project. For instance, in the last stage of the *Sosadong* excavation in 2006, the excavation budget increased by about 5%, and the period extended over a further 75 working days due to the discovery of archaeological evidence that had not previously been predicted (see Figure 31). In fact, the excavation cost was affordable to the developers, but the excavation period was the cause of conflict between the archaeologists and the developers (see developer's comment in Chapter 4.4.1.1). To summarise: these unpredictable costs and time delays are generally caused by the typical invisibility of buried archaeological sites. In addition, the typical fragility of the remains uncovered also often causes an issue after rescue excavation. As seen in Figure 5 and Figure 6, some rescue-excavated sites have been preserved *in-situ* or by removal (see Chapter 1.3). In particular, in the case of *in-situ* preservation, a new layout and design are often required for the development project. For instance, in

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<sup>4</sup> 'Won' is the Korean currency. The exchange rate is 1,800won/£.

*Sosadong*, the site was partly preserved by *in-situ* after the excavation (Chapter 3.2). For this, the *in-situ* preserved part was redesigned as a park area (Figure 41). Undoubtedly, the new layout led to an increase in the total budget of the development project, which is amounted to a greater outlay than the excavation costs. It can be said that all these issues are fundamentally relevant to buried sites on account of their typical nature. In addition, it is not a result by fully understanding of values important stakeholders such as archaeologists and developers. In terms of the management of archaeological resources, there was little in the way of an appropriate planning process to deal with such eventualities, should they be encountered (see Chapter 3.2.2).

It seems that the South Korean situation has slightly improved over recent years; for instance since 2002, more rescue excavated sites have been preserved *in-situ* and the number of museums at archaeological sites has increased (Yoon, Hee-Jin 2016, 15-19); this has had a concomitant impact on the protection of values, but challenges still lie in the decision-making process in terms of the management process. Typically, it is expected that rescue excavations rapidly investigate sites; while the typical fragility of buried sites, when exposed, also requires rapid decision making. Consequently, the diverse spectrum of potential values embedded in any given site (see Chapter 2.4.1) is seldom fully understood in such decision-making (e.g. Chapter 4.5). For rapid and rational decision making, both during and after excavation, an understanding of the physical conditions at play must take place alongside a transparent assessment of the



diverse values that they are imbued with. In terms of physical condition, a number of assessment methods and techniques have been developed by relevant fields, such as architecture, conservation and archaeology, in order to gain a better understanding of the site. On the other hand, the field of Archaeological Resource Management has only recently conceived of the understanding and assessment of values as an essential element of the decision making process. Moreover, when a buried archaeological site is excavated, decisions have to be made quickly because of the typical fragility caused by the exposure of the site. In addition to this pressure, transparent and speedy decisions are also expected by the various stakeholders. For instance, in South Korea, the selection of *in-situ*, removal or recording as a post-excavation treatment is heavily contingent upon the decision-making of limited, exclusive stakeholders, including archaeologists, developers, and the local and national government (Chapter 2.2.1 and Chapter 4.3), often without transparent and sound assessment standards and criteria for the different values at stake (Chapter 2.4 and Chapter 4.5). This is an analogical issue to the management of archaeological resources in South Korea.

In addition, many issues and challenges have arisen from in the new paradigm of international heritage management: the transformation from the protection to the use of archaeological resources (see Chapter 1 and Chapter 2.4). These challenges include the transparency of decision-making based on diverse values, appropriate conservation approaches for these diverse values, the interpretation

and presentation of values, etc. (see Chapter 2). These are not simply issues and challenges for archaeologists or heritage professionals; they are also social issues and challenges for South Korea (see Chapter 4). For this reason, many South Korean heritage professionals believe that the recognition of the importance of archaeological resources began in the 1990s as a direct result of the conflict between economic development and the protection of archaeological resources; as the interview data shows (see Figure 51), the professionals address two major explanations: improvements in the quality of life, and conflicts between land development and the protection of cultural heritage. The former lead to the public interest in culture and history, while the latter, which is mostly negative, is also an issue in which the public are implicated. This means that, for the public as well as for professionals archaeological sites have become an important social issue in South Korea.

In order to deal with the social issues and conflicts related to buried archaeological sites, a new legal framework, *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, was enacted in South Korea in 2011, deviating from the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*. Nevertheless, the typical nature of the sites and the dynamics of understanding and assessing values (see Chapter 4), makes it difficult to judge whether either the legislation outlined, or South Korean archaeologists, have adequately dealt with these issues and challenges. More practically, this is because of the absence of a clear conception of management, including decision-making protocols, standards and criteria,

precludes an understanding of the diverse types of values and the value-based selection of protection methods, when considering approaches to presentation and interpretation. Rescue archaeology, in particular, is conducted without effective management planning. This does not mean that a plan to protect all excavated sites *in-situ* is necessary, but that rescue excavation should necessarily be understood as a part, or process, of the management of archaeological resources. For instance, most rescue excavation plans do not have any agreed framework that outlines the post-excavation phase of treatment. Consequently, conflicts arise when *in-situ* preservation is selected as the mode for post-excavation treatment. There are two reasons for this: first of all, decisions are not made as part of a management process; second, they seem to be an immediate consequence of excavation (rather than values). Perhaps this is partly because of the typical unpredictability with which excavations proceed due to the invisibility of buried sites. However, that these conflicts arise must also be understood in the context of archaeologists and developers refusal to recognise excavation as part and parcel of the development project, or the management of archaeological resources; archaeologists still focus on their academic demands and developers regard excavation as merely a process that must necessarily take place to obtain development permission.

In addition, such conflicts are not easily accepted by some stakeholders, such as developers, due to the absence of a transparent process for the assessment of the values relating to excavated sites. In order to justify decisions, sound and

rational processes for understanding and assessing diverse values are essential to explain - and even persuade - interested parties. However, this is not the case in South Korea at the present time.

## 1.5 Conclusion – Research goals

To sum up, the real challenge in South Korea is not simply the number of the sites protected *in-situ*, but rather the development of a consistent approach and sound intellectual framework for decision-making. This framework needs to include:

- Whether or not sites should be excavated? And if so:
- On what scale: 'preservation by record' and total removal, or partial excavation?
- Whether elements of sites or entire sites should be preserved *in-situ*? And if so:
- Their mode of management, communication and usage?

This raises broader questions:

- Who makes the decisions? (Chapter 2.2 Chapter 4.3 and Chapter 6.2.1)
- Why are the sites managed? (Chapter 2.3, Chapter 4.4 and Chapter 6.3)
- What values should be protected? (Chapter 2.4, Chapter 4.5, and Chapter 6.4); relatedly:
- How should these values be protected? (Chapter 2.5, Chapter 4.6, and Chapter 6.5)

In the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, diverse issues, challenges and problems emerged in South Korea in terms of archaeological resource management. South Korean archaeology has struggled to deal with these issues appropriately, for Korean archaeology does not have an intellectual framework in order to do so. For instance, it does not have a clear rationale or sound criteria for decision making, regarding which sites should be preserved *in-situ*, and which should be removed (see Chapter 4.5.1.2).

Sites in South Korea are seldom seen as part of a wider framework of holistic planning; rather, rescue excavation is often regarded as a mandatory procedure in order that permission for a development project be gained, both by archaeologists and developers (see Chapter 1.4). The initial stages of development projects place few demands on developers with regards to the consideration of buried archaeological resources. One exception involved alterations to construction designs imposed following a field walking survey that was conducted by an archaeological team from the Korea Land and Home Corporation, which is one of the largest public corporations for large-scale of development projects relating to land and residential areas. Their team carry out field walking surveys before launching their project (<http://museum.lh.or.kr/info/group.asp>). However, even in such a case, in which developers excluded certain areas from their project, the overall landscape was changed and damaged. The CHA have also attempted to take advantage of GIS in buried archaeological sites to resolve conflicts between their protection and

their development; for this, they have attempted to put in place a GIS system, including locations, scale, boundary, discovered artefacts and information concerning all of the buried sites that have been identified in South Korea. The idea is that Archaeological Predictive Modelling can then be used to take into account archaeological locations when planning development projects (Park, Gun-Young 2009 11-20). It is, however, hard to say whether this GIS and Archaeological Predictive Modelling are widely used for development planning. Rather, it seems likely that archaeologists in South Korea still prefer the traditional methods: field walking and trial trench investigation (Chapter 1.3).

Recently, the international debate in the field of Archaeological Resource Management has focused on how sites are used for, and by, the general public (see Chapter 2). In South Korea, in fact, a number of management plans for nationally designated archaeological sites have recently been undertaken. A revision of the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* in 2012 includes the 'Formulation of a Master Plan for Cultural Heritage' in Article 6: 'the Administrator of the Cultural Heritage Administration shall formulate a comprehensive master plan addressing the following matters (hereinafter referred to as "master plan for cultural heritage") every five years, following consultations with the competent Mayor/Do Governor for the preservation, management and utilization of cultural heritage'. At first glance, this appears to be a very positive change for the preservation of archaeological resources and their communication/use by the public, however it is clear that there are a

number of issues, conflicts and problems in the above context including unclear criteria, and a closed and exclusive decision-making process. These include: inadequate procedures for understanding diverse and dynamic values, and unclear decision-making criteria or standards. Instead, management plans seem to be used as an administrative tool or procedure (see Chapter 4.3.2.3 and Figure 49). I would argue that there are two main reasons for the current situation in South Korea: a lack of any intellectual or theoretical framework for Archaeological Resource Management, and the lack of a planning model as a tool to realize such a framework.

This research will explore these issues by focusing on buried archaeological sites in South Korea. Such sites can be difficult to manage, leading to uncertainty regarding their scale and condition, their 'invisibility' and their often-fragile nature. A decision-making tool, based on the appropriate intellectual framework, and addressing diverse values in relation to archaeological resources, is urgently needed. Some archaeologists argue that the rescue archaeology era in South Korea has now finished, following the end of a series of massive economic development projects. However, against this backdrop, the rational and sound management of non-renewable archaeological resources might be regarded as an even more urgent matter.

The research goals of this thesis are divided into two parts:

- 1) To develop an acceptable intellectual framework for Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea. In particular, this will explore:
  - a) International trends in Archaeological Resource Management (Chapter 2).
  - b) Current critical issues and challenges in the management of buried archaeological sites in South Korea (Chapters 3 & 4).
- 2) To build a holistic planning model for the management of buried archaeological sites in South Korea, based on an understanding of international and South Korean practice. This includes:
  - a) Identifying key conceptual issues in the formulation of the model (Chapter 5).
  - b) Setting out the holistic model (Chapter 6).

## 1.6 Methodology

### 1.6.1 Literature reviews

The first part of this review focuses on the theoretical context of Archaeological Resource Management internationally, in order to understand the intellectual transformation of the field (Chapter 2). As regards South Korean issues, this review follows a chronological perspective in order to understand changes through time, as well as transformations in theory and approaches.

This reviews examines two viewpoints: the *subject* and the *object* of the management: the complicated and dynamic relationship between people (*subject*) and the resources (*object*), with the issues at stake continuously



changing within this relationship. These critical issues are explored and compared, using four broad contexts: 'who', 'why', 'what', and 'how'.

- 1) Who: encompassing 'by whom' (power in decision-making in the preservation of archaeological resources) and 'for whom'(who uses the archaeological resource in contemporary society);
- 2) Why: explores issues of ownership and identity in Archaeological Resource Management;
- 3) What: explores values of archaeological resources as an objective of management
- 4) How: relates to a range of management approaches to protection/conservation, decision-making, authenticity, and presentation and interpretation.

### 1.6.2 Comparative analysis

This part explores the nature of current South Korean Archaeological Resource Management in comparison to international trends. In a broad perspective, while Korean archaeology has developed along similar lines to international resource management; however there are significant differences in approaches and the uptake of ideas. In order to identify specific issues and challenges in their South Korean context, it is necessary to use a literature review (primarily) alongside interviews, as the means by which to conduct a comparative analysis between international trends and the South Korean practice (see Chapter 1.6.3) of Korean professionals working in archaeology and heritage management. In addition,

issues and challenges will be explored through examples of procedures and practise in case-study sites (see Chapter 3 and Chapter 4).

### 1.6.3 Interviews and questionnaires with South Korean professionals

In fact, despite a number of issues and challenges with the management of archaeological resources in South Korea, there have been few discussions of these issues and challenges in the literature. In order to better understand the South Korean situation against this backdrop of this paucity of literature, interviews have been conducted with relevant professionals in a number of relevant fields.

For this, two strategies were adopted:

- interviews with Korean archaeologists were carried out, which sought to explore the general context of Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea
- a questionnaire issued to a wider range of South Korean professionals sought to identify relevant issues, including their assessment of current management plans.

In general, the interview aimed to explore Korean archaeologists' general awareness surrounding the management of archaeological resources. The result of the interview was used in order to structure the questionnaire, with this second phase being useful in order that more quantitative data be garnered. In

order to outline this research, the analysis of the questionnaire is explicitly addressed.

#### 1.6.3.1 *Interviews*

The interviewees were selected from among South Korean archaeologists working in the fields of archaeology, conservation, development planning, and universities (both teaching staff and students) (Figure 7). In order to acquire reliable data from the interviews, those archaeologists (14) who are responsible for excavations, and who are able to make decisions using their own archaeological knowledge (the basis of their role as senior researchers) were chosen. For Conservation, conservators (2) who are closely associated with ongoing archaeological fieldwork were selected. For the field of development planning, interviewees (5) who have experience in archaeological fieldwork, and who work within the cultural heritage section of development organizations, were chosen. For the administrative field, interviewees (4) were chosen who work for the Korean Cultural Properties Research Institute Association, which is a non-governmental organization comprising a consultative group of archaeological research units. Teaching staff and students were selected from the department of Cultural Properties Management in the Korean National University of Cultural Heritage (NUCH), along with a number of archaeologists from the department of Cultural Anthropology in Hanyang University.

A total of 33 people and 2 groups of undergraduate students were interviewed.

In order to ensure anonymity, the names of the interviewees are codified by

fields and serial numbers, which were used when sorting out data such as AR1, DE1, AC1 etc. (Figure 7 and Appendix 3).

	Field archaeologists	Development	Academic		Administrative	Conservation	Museum
			Teaching	Student			
Form	14	3		4	4	2	
Open discussion		2	2	2 groups	1		1
Sub-total	14	5	2	4	5	2	1
Total	33+2 group of undergraduate students						
Code	AR	DE	AC	ST	AD	CO	MU

Figure 7: Background of interviewees.

The interview was conducted in a *semi-structured* form. For the interview, the author either visited relevant institutions, or undertook interviews at the annual conference of the Korean Archaeological Society (in November 2011). The interviews were carried out in three stages:

- 1) A brief explanation of the research;
- 2) A interview form, using both multiple choice and open questions  
(Appendix 1);
- 3) An open discussion, where the interviewer and interviewees discussed a wide range of issues, questions and discussion topics, which differed depending on the interviewers' field (open question in Appendix 2)

In order to document the discussion, it was initially intended that the interviews would be recorded, however most of the interviewees did not want to be

recorded. Thus, notes taken during the interview were used to document the discussions.

#### 1.6.3.2 *Questionnaires*

##### 1) Professional Archaeologists

A questionnaire survey was developed from the interview data to yield more quantitative data than was gauged from the first stage of interviews (Appendix 1).

The basic ideas came from the interview data, which was regarded as representing the thinking of South Korean archaeologists. For this, the questionnaire was designed with 20 questions including 2 open questions for interviewees' details, 17 multiple-choice questions, and 1 open question for the elucidation of additional opinion (Appendix 2). A broad perspective, as regards the beginning of an awareness of cultural heritage management in South Korea, was elicited using the first part of the questionnaire, which was multiple choice and order to readily identify thoughts and perspectives. It was also the intention that the questionnaire be used to look into the decision-making structure in managing cultural heritage in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century and the early 21<sup>st</sup> century. Then, the focus shifted onto the circumstances of management planning for archaeological resources in South Korea. This included issues about the power of stakeholders for decision-making, conservation, presentation and interpretation, as well as points of improvement for rational decision making. The last open question asked for further suggestions in relation to this research project more generally. For the purposes of quantitative analysis, some questions take

advantage of a weighted value system based on grades, such as “most important” to “least important.” This made it possible to determine a potential ranking with the most number of responses, as well as a rating average.

## 2) Other Professions

This questionnaire was developed to reach a wider range of professionals working in the heritage field in South Korea. This took advantage of a Korean-language Facebook group, *Heritage, Spring of the Future*. This group was established in April 2011 by Mr. Tae-Sik Kim, who is a journalist in the cultural heritage field, with the aim of providing a “discussion of diverse heritage issues [in South Korea] with diverse views” through online discussion and debate, and offline meetings (visiting excavations, conservation and restoration sites, and an annual conference). Past discussion topics have included management policies, conservation and restoration principles, and the view on the presentation and interpretation of archaeological resources. As of 2012, the Facebook group has 164 members, including a number of professionals and experts ranging from archaeologists, historians, conservators, scientists, anthropologists, museum curators, journalists, architects, politicians (a local parliament member), civil servants, developers, city planners, regional researchers, and representatives of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). Of the 164 members of the Facebook group, a total of 39 interviewees responded. The survey was anonymous; individuals submitted information regarding their age, field of work and work

experience voluntarily. Most of the people who responded were archaeologists or architects, but experts from other professions also responded (Figure 8).

Field	Archaeology	Architecture	Local Government	National Government	Development	History
Number	13	7	3	6	1	2
Field	Media	Museums	NGOs	Local studies	No response	Total
Number	2	1	1	1	2	39

Figure 8: Background of responders of questionnaire survey.

Most of the responders (more than 80%) were 30-40 years old (Figure 9), and most had more than 5 years' work experience in their respective field (Figure 10). For convenience, the questionnaire used the Internet survey site, *Survey Monkey*. The questionnaire was produced in Korean and a link was sent to all the members of the group by email throughout *Facebook*. The survey was undertaken between September and October 2012.

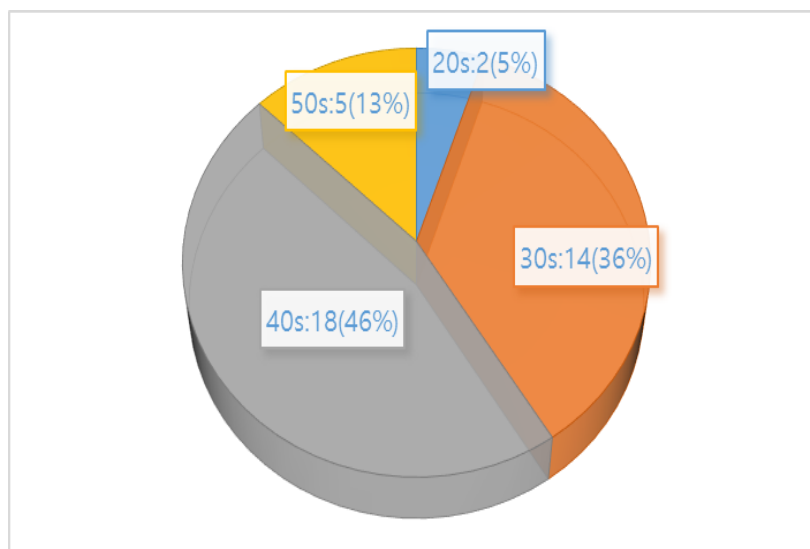


Figure 9: Age of responders of questionnaire survey

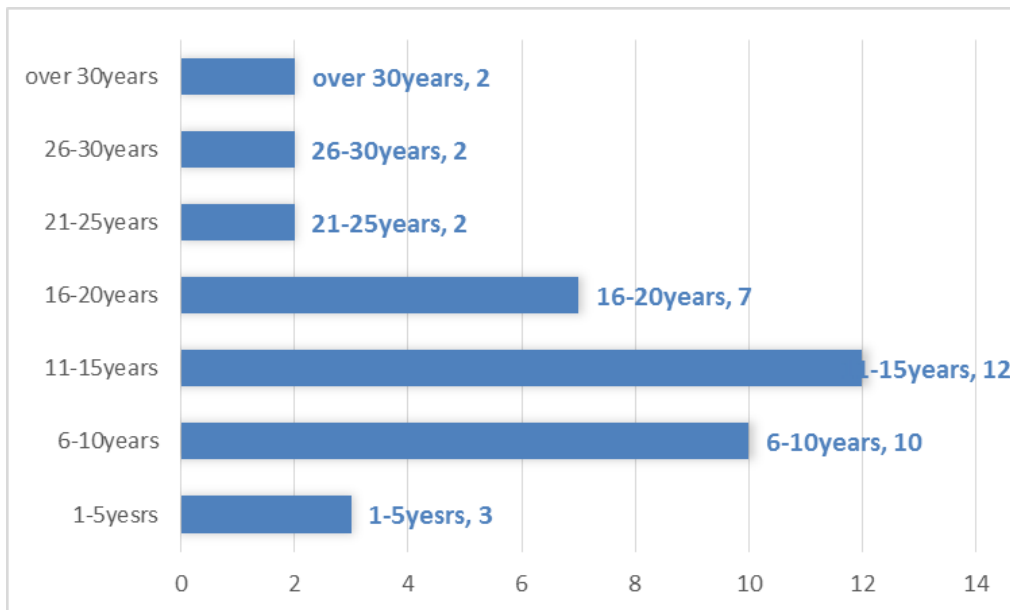


Figure 10: Working experience of responders of questionnaire survey

## 1.6.4 Case studies

### 1.6.4.1 Aims

The research used case studies for two purposes:

- 1) To explore issues and challenges in the management planning process and the decision-making process in South Korea;
- 2) To explore current approaches to these issues and problems.

### 1.6.4.2 Case-study selection

Two key selection criteria were identified:

- 1) Sites under threat during development, including the rationale and criteria used to assess the value of the archaeological sites concerned, and decision-making regarding their *in-situ preservation* or recording/removal by rescue excavation;



- 2) The use of archaeological sites as a social resource, including the issues of contemporary social context, participatory planning, and the identification and use of values.

Two case study sites were selected, *Jeongokri* and *Sosadong*, because they allow us to address two very different sets of circumstances, and to demonstrate diverse issues, challenges, problems and solutions (Figure 11 and Chapter 3). Because of their scale, history and significance, these two sites also enable us to address the typical issues and challenges of buried sites in South Korea more generally. They also provide a relatively useful approach to dealing with the issues and challenges, though each has a different management structure. In addition, since 1993 I have been actively involved in both sites in various capacities, from assistant researcher to senior researcher. I have taken part in different kinds of project at *Jeongokri*: management planning, field surveys, excavations, the *Jeongokri* Prehistoric festival, and some of the archaeological investigations in areas near to the site. I was also involved in the *Sosadong* excavations in 2005 and 2006 as a senior field researcher of the Korea Institute of Cultural Heritage. Thus, I had access to information and documentation, and to current and past staff members who were involved in the programmes. These sites thus present an opportunity to explore, in depth, the application of current approaches to archaeological sites in South Korea.

The *Jeongokri Prehistoric Site* (Chapter 3.1) was designated as a National Historic Site of Korea in 1972, and a site management plan was conducted in 2003, leading to the construction of an on-site museum. The site management plan is a good example of the current approaches to management planning in South Korea. The site has attracted attention as a result of its on-site public festival, the Jeongokri Prehistoric Festival. This was launched in 1993 by Professor Bae and his students in response to public interest in the site. Nevertheless, the plan also had issues and challenges, which are common to, or even worse at, other archaeological sites.

Conversely, *Sosadong* (Chapter 3.2) was excavated as a rescue archaeology project. The site was then partially preserved *in-situ*, but there is - and has never been - a comprehensive management plan for the site.

	<i>Jeongokri</i>	<i>Sosadong</i>
Designation	Yes (National Historic Site 268)	No
Period	Palaeolithic	Bronze Age
Area	778,296 m <sup>2</sup> (designated area)	45,954 m <sup>2</sup> (investigated area)
Reason for investigation	Academic and Rescue	Rescue Excavation
Management plan	Yes	No

Figure 11: Brief information of case study sites (*Jeongokri* and *Sosadong*).

#### 1.6.4.3 Approach to the case studies

The literature relating to the development and content of the *Jeongokri* management plan, and to the decision-making processes at *Sosadong*, was used as the basis for exploring multiple stakeholders, working with experts, approaches to documentation, the assessment of values, presentation and interpretation. For more site-specific information, interviews were conducted with relevant people at both sites to gauge their opinions on these issues. The interviewees (Figure 7 and Appendix 3) include 6 archaeologists who were involved in the excavations at both sites, and staff from the Jeongokri Prehistoric Museum. These case studies are expected to provide the research data to contribute to the identification of concrete factors and aspects which might improve the management of archaeological resource in South Korea, both through an intellectual framework and practical approaches. This data will then be taken advantage of when building a holistic management planning model.

#### 1.6.5 Model building

A holistic model of the management planning for archaeological resources in South Korea will be developed, which responds to the issues and problems identified in the research (Chapter 4). This includes:

- a) Identifying key conceptual issues in the formulation of the model (Chapter 5).
- b) Setting out the holistic model (Chapter 6).

#### 1.6.5.1 *Building intellectual approaches for a model*

This section is divided into two parts, relating to goal 1) in Chapter 1.5: setting up intellectual principles (Chapter 5.1) and essential concepts and definitions for the model (Chapter 5.2). The former represents the intellectual foundations to leading to the holistic planning model, while the latter are likely to represent practical definitions to be incorporated into the planning process in the course of putting management strategies in place. The intellectual principles will take advantage of the basic notion for management of cultural heritage at present throughout the transformation of the international context (Chapter 2). Although the holistic management-planning model in this research aims takes South Korea as its starting point, the fundamental notions on which it is based represent development of the international context. The essential concepts will be more precisely defined for the holistic model. Some basic conceptions and terminology are ambiguous among professionals; in order to avoid this ambiguity, and to set up precise management strategies, the key definitions addressed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4 will be repeatedly defined.

#### 1.6.5.2 *Developing planning procedures and steps for specific issues and challenges in South Korea*

An important part of this research will be to attempt to build planning procedures and steps for managing buried archaeological sites in South Korea, which relates to aim 2) in Chapter 1.5. The model will provide a road map for a plan to address the issues and challenges identified in South Korea (Chapter 4).

In a logical sense, the model will be devised in two broad procedures: *identifying* and *responding* to the issues and challenges. The former means detecting site-specific issues and challenges, and the latter means suggesting relevant solutions. In order to encompass the diverse issues and challenges at play in this process, it is useful to take advantage of four contexts in the literature review and comparative analysis – Who, Why, What, and How (Chapter 1.6.1 and Chapter 1.6.2) – because these topics are also devised to logically cover a wide range of issues and challenges. The detailed steps of the model will be built up against specific South Korean issues and challenges in Chapter 4. The steps are not simply a map of a process, but will involve feasible approaches and methods based on intellectual principles (Chapter 5), as well as considering practical cases in South Korea, including *Jeongokri* and *Sosadong*. In addition, given the dynamic nature of archaeological sites, the solution – responding in management planning – is not singular or unique. The assessment of diverse values will be the essential procedure that allows the selection of the best options for each individual case. The assessment, therefore, should be a major procedure, and the plan should also be reviewed in order to assess achievements and redevelop the plan. Thus, the model will have four stages – Identifying, Assessment, Responding and Reviewing – and each stage will encompass detailed steps that address the identified issues and challenges in the management of buried archaeological sites in South Korea.

## 2 Theoretical context: the development of Archaeological Resource Management in an international context

### 2.1 Changing issues in international context

The meaning of management represents a useful starting point if we are to understand the transformation of issues and challenges in the field of Archaeological Resource Management. It could be said that the field of Archaeological Resource Management began (in terms of the administrative management of archaeological resources) in Europe in the 17<sup>th</sup> century with the Swedish Royal Proclamation of 1666 (Cleere 1989, 1). At this time, the meaning of the 'management' emphasized the ownership of the resources. As the development of the modern concept of Archaeological Resource Management emerged, the management of resources has become much more complicated and dynamic, within the widening relationship between the people involved, including professionals and the general public (Subject) and the resources (Object), with the issues at stake continually changing within this relationship. Accordingly the definition of the 'management' also covers diverse issues beyond ownership; for instance, Figure 12 shows the diverse definitions of the management by scholars in recent studies.

Academic	Definition	Reference
Sullivan	The principal goal of a management plan is to conserve cultural significance which is consisted of a diversity of values such as aesthetic, scientific, historic, or social, or combination of these	Sullivan 1997, 16

<b>Hall and McArthur</b>	The typical strategic heritage planning has two goals; ensuring the conservation of heritage value and enhancing the experiences of the visitors who interact with it	Hall and McArthur 1996, 22
<b>Mason and Avrami</b>	Conservation is not merely about saving the physical remains of the past; it is about telling something about ourselves; what is important to us, what we value about our history, and why we are connected to our various groups. .... What the most critical about management plans is that they should be driven and developed through a participatory and interdisciplinary process	Mason and Avrami 2000, 18-9
<b>Demas</b>	The planning process is a means of identifying those diverse values and the constituencies vying to define the significance of archaeological sites	Demas 2000, 35
<b>Burra Charter</b>	Conservation means all the processes of looking after a place so as to retain its cultural significance.	Australia ICOMOS 1999, 2
<b>International Committee for the Management of Archaeological Heritage (ICAHM)</b>	The overall objective of archaeological heritage management should be the preservation of monuments and sites in situ... Local commitment and participation should be actively sought and encouraged as a means of promoting the maintenance of the archaeological heritage	ICOMOS 1990, Article 6
<b>Matero and Fong</b>	Cultural heritage management means that the planning, direction, and conservation of cultural heritage with an ideological objective of maintaining and establishing cultural continuity and identity. The management of cultural heritage serves an educational function through the preservation and promotion of a culture's history and material property.	Matero and Fong 1998, 141

Figure 12: Definitions of management.

The key conception shared by the above definitions is the sustenance<sup>5</sup> of diverse values, including the physical conservation of archaeological resources. In particular, those diverse values, which have become an important target of the management plan, are a product of the relationship between the people and the archaeological resources associated with them. In other words, the reason why issues, challenges and problems related to the management are complicated and dynamic is the diversification of the 'subject' and 'object' of the management.

Perhaps, the 'subject' means the persons or people (stakeholders) who are involved in the management including professionals and the general public, and the 'object' represents the archaeological resource on which the stakeholders place values and becomes the target of the management in general. In this regard, both 'subject' and 'object' have been increased, extended, and diversified since the Swedish Royal Proclamation of 1666. In modern society, the protection of archaeological resources is not simply the work of professionals', but is for all persons who are interested in the resources (Subject). The type of resources (Object) has also been highly diversified. This diversification does not mean

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<sup>5</sup> Recently the term, 'sustaining (sustainability, sustainable development)', has been increasingly used in the management of archaeological resources and heritage. For instance, the term does not mean simply the static preservation of heritage, 'continuous *process of conservation*' based on diverse values including cultural value, educational and academic value, economic value, resource value and aesthetic value which are shaped by the people (English Heritage 2008, 314-317),



increasing the types of tangible resources, but including the intangible values and their significance.

Figure 13 shows the development of archaeological resource management in a broad sense. The horizontal axis is taken to represent the Stakeholders (Subject) and the vertical axis the resources (Object). Movement to the right denotes time. In the early stages of the field, the management of archaeological resources was the responsibility of relevant professionals and a limited group of persons. The type of resources and the target of the protection were also restricted. With the passage of time, however, the stakeholders (Subject) and values (Object) have become more diverse. This is because the people who are interested in the archaeology has increased from a small group of professionals to the general public. As increases in the stakeholders (Subject) take place, the values (Object) become diversified because they are shared, changed and created by the Subject (people). In other words, both horizontal and vertical axes represent a dynamism and complication of resource management and the management has been complicated and dynamic as much as the extent of the horizontal and vertical axis.

In order to explore issues related in the management of archaeological resources in the radical respect, the research attempts to divide these two contexts, 'subject' and 'object'; the former into 'Why' and 'Who', and the latter into 'What' and 'How'. These four topics will be explored alongside some specific issues, which can represent each topic (see Figure 14).

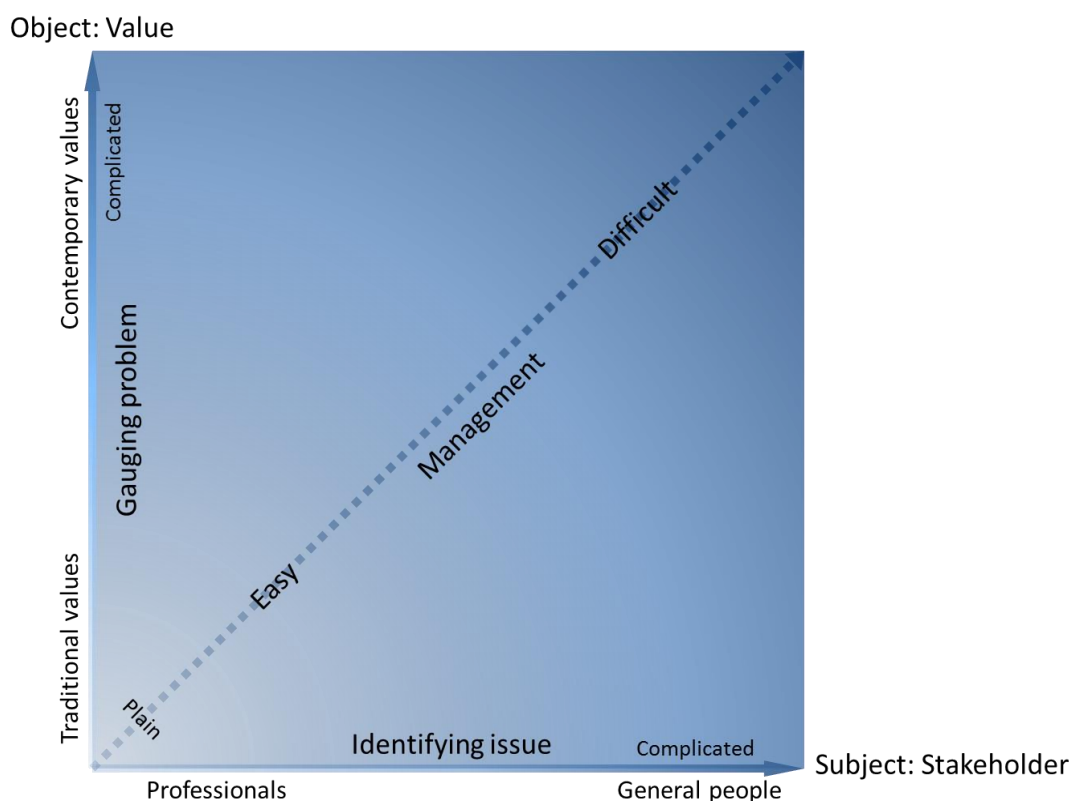


Figure 13: The general model of the development of Archaeological Resource Management.

Context	Topics	Issues
Subject	Who	By whom and for whom
	Why	Identity and ownership
Object	What	Values and assessment criteria
	How	Management strategies (Interpretation and Presentation)

Figure 14: Research topics and issues

## 2.2 The Subject: 'who' - by whom and for whom

From the earliest 'management' of archaeological resources, the 'object' of 'management' was a critical issue. However, it is arguably the case that the fundamental issue is the 'subject', because the decision maker for the question

'what should be protected' is the persons who are related the resources. Thus, this research began from the 'who' issue for the 'subject' of the management. This part, therefore, will explore stakeholder issues in the view of 'by whom' and 'for whom'. It already represents some transformation of the conception in Archaeological Resource Management. Since the beginning of the field, taken as the Swedish Royal Proclamation of 1666, the first topic would be 'who should be responsible of protecting the resource?' The topic has been broadened over time. The recently critical topic is 'for whom' as well as 'by whom'.

### 2.2.1 Managed by whom?

#### 2.2.1.1 *From the administrative management*

Since the beginning of Archaeological Resource Management, the administrative power, typically the legal system, has played an important role in the protection of resources. For this reason, administrative management is regarded as one of the basic principles of Archaeological Resources Management (re-quoted from Carman 1996); 'governed by legislation' (Cleere 1989, 10); 'depends for its very survival upon close interaction with the realm of law (McGimsey and Davis 1977, 9); 'exists in a legal context' (Fowler 1982, 4); or a 'legislative context' (Schiffer and Gumerman 1977, 3-9); or against 'legislative background' (Darvil 1987, 32); and relies upon 'legal mandates for its intelligent management' (Adovaiso and Carlisle 1988, 74). In turn, all European countries have legislative system for the management of archaeological resources, as well as governmental organisations for the system that is in place (see Figure 15).

Although it is difficult to understand the development of Archaeological Resource Management from a chronological perspective, because the important developments occurred independently in a number of different areas, the universal starting point is the management of past remains by the government. Accordingly, Cleere (1989, 1) insisted that the administrative management was started with the Swedish Royal Proclamation of 1666; 'declaring all objects from antiquity to be the property of the Crown', while, in the UK, the 'Treasure Trove' represents 'the most ancient law applied to the archaeological heritage' (Carman, 1996, 45). By the 19<sup>th</sup> Century many European countries had enacted relevant legislation of their own (for instance, see O'Keefe and Prott' 1984, 38-39). By the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, as Figure 15 shows, most European countries had revised and/or enacted new legislation and established governmental organisations relevant to archaeological sites (Cleere 1989, 4). As a result, the 'care of protection' of ancient monuments' in most European countries started with the adoption of Monument Acts in the later 19<sup>th</sup> century or early 20<sup>th</sup> century, as the precursors to the modern conception of heritage management (Willems 1998, 284).

There appears to be a pattern of new legislation in many European countries that was established in the second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century. That is, perhaps, because of the increased demands on the role or power of administration based on the legal framework in the management of archaeological resources. For instance, as Pearce pointed out (1990, 31-34) the 'Heritage Movement' in 1960s shows the increasing interest and concern of the general public for heritage, particularly

with regards to the conservation and interpretation of the traditional identity of every part of the UK. In particular, the increase was motivated by rescue archaeology (Pearce 1990, 31). For example, UK archaeology entered a phase of rescue archaeology during development projects that sought to address the damage incurred during World War II (See Jones 1984; Barker 1987; Sheldon 1987; Butcher & Garwood 1994; Rahtz 1974). Furthermore, most European countries have passed through a similar situation; for instance the United States faced a new era of rescue archaeology with Great Depression relief programmes from the 1930s onwards (e.g. Willems 1998, 294 and Jameson 2004). Hence, important concerns emerged regarding the protection of archaeological resources against destruction at an alarming rate by the pressure of massive industrial development. In order to deal with this increased interest and threat, the role of legislation has become even more important over time. As a result, in 1960s and 1970s, most European countries enacted new legislation of relevance to archaeological sites generally, combined with the regulation of excavations (Willems 1998, 294 and Cleere 1989, 4), such that 'all types of archaeological monument have some form of statutory protection in most countries' (Kristiansen 1989, 26).

Country	Year of enactment	Law	Current governmental authority
<b>Austria</b>	1918	Law on the Prohibition of Export	Federal Ministry for Education, the Arts and Culture
<b>Belgium</b>	1931	Act of 5 September concerning on conservation of monuments and sites	DIVISION DU PATRIMOINE/ AFDELING MONUMENTEN EN LANDSCHAPPEN

Cyprus	1935	Antiquity Law	Department of Antiquities
Denmark	1986	Act No. 331 of 4 June 1986 on protection of cultural resources in Denmark	Ministry of Culture
Finland	1978	Act concerning Restrictions on the Export of Cultural Property	Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture
France	1913	Law on historic monuments	French Ministry of Culture and Communication
German	1955	Law for the protection of German Cultural Property against Exportation	Federal Government Commissioner for Culture and the Media (BKM)
Greece	1932	Act No. 5353 of 24 August 1932, concerning the search for and preservation of antiquities	Hellenic Ministry of Culture and Tourism
Hungary	1963	Ordinance No. 9 of 1963 of the Presidential Council of the People's Republic concerning Protection of Museum Objects	Ministry of Education and Culture
Iceland	1969	Law on National Antiquities	
Ireland	1930	National Monument Act	The Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government
Netherlands	1984	Cultural Heritage Preservation Act	Cultural Heritage Inspectorate
Norway	1979	Act concerning the Cultural Heritage	
Poland	1962	Law on the Protection of Cultural Property and on Museums	Polish Ministry of Culture and National Heritage
Spain	1985	Law 13/1985 of 25 June 1985 concerning the Spanish historic heritage	Ministry of Culture
Sweden	1986	Act protecting objects of a certain age against export	National Heritage Board
United Kingdom	1979	The ancient monument and Archaeological Areas Act 1979	Department for Culture, Media and Sport/ English Heritage

Figure 15: First National Laws of European countries (edited from Prott and O'Keeffe (1989, 978-1001) and National Legislation of EU Member in website of European University of Law).

#### 2.2.1.2 *Via institutional management*

Since the emergence of legislative administrative management, another transformation has taken place in terms of the establishment of diverse institutions for the management of archaeological resources. Although it is fair to

say that legislation has played important role for the management of archaeological resources, issues related to management are likely to become more complicated than administrative factors allow for, and - hence - new challenges emerge over time. These challenges are primarily due to increases in the diversity and quantity of resources as well as their type. In order to deal with the issues and challenges described, domestic and international institutions have been developed. On the one hand, for instance, the UK enacted diverse case laws to deal with different types of archaeological resources (see Carman 2002, 35-38), on the other hand, unsurprisingly, more professional institutions have become involved in the management of archaeological resources, ranging from governmental organizations, museums, groups consisting of professionals and numbers of NGOs. As a result, first of all, archaeological resources have become protected by governmental institutions (see in Figure 15) with 'official or legally sanctioned existence' (Carman 2002, 61). In the meantime, the role of museum, classically the most relevant organisation in relation to the archaeological record, has been extended. Since the emergence of public collections in some museums in 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> century and the fully public archaeology museums in the UK that appeared as a result of Museum Act 1845 (Pearce, 1990, 14-15), museums have played an important role in the storage, presentation and interpretation of archaeological resources to the regional and local public. In particular, in the second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century, these museums have led developments in exhibitions, preservation, and the other research functions associated with

archaeological resources in their area, as an important heritage organization (for instance, see Carman 2002, 83-88; Pearce 1990, 31-49). Not only the museums, but also diverse non-governmental organizations (NGO) and professional archaeological groups have played an important role in the management of resources.

Another classic example of the institutional management of archaeological resources is represented by international NGOs, such as United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), International Committee on Monuments and Site (ICOMOS), International Council of Museums (ICOM), International Committee on Archaeological Heritage Management (ICHAM) (see Carman 2002, 62-91). These international NGOs aim for international co-operation through the establishment and exchange of expertise knowledge, and by setting minimum standards of performance for the management of archaeological remains (Carman 2002, 65). As result, they have made a number of conventions, charters and recommendations representing the overarching global regulation of heritage matters. Although, as Carman (2002, 69) pointed out that 'the international agencies alone have very few powers for their enforcement', it is fair to say that they have contributed to illustrating those principles that relate to a wide range of concerns about the management of archaeological resources by means of the conventions, charters, recommendations and declarations. In fact, European Conventions are ratified in



the national law of EU nations, and so they have, without doubt, played a vital role in the administrative management of archaeological resources.

### 2.2.1.3 *Management with the public*

As the previous part shows, it is fair to say that the legal system has played a central role in the institutional management of resources. In recent years, however, the most significant transformation in the subject of management has been the foregrounding of the role of the general public. This is, however, not something that emerged suddenly. In second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century, a number of institutions came to be associated with the management of archaeological resources. This is, on the one hand, primarily due to increases in the quantity of resources; on the other hand, these associations have emerged out of the desire, concern, attention and interest of the public in the resources which has fundamentally increased to comprise a 'Heritage Movement' (Pearce1990, 31). Accordingly, in the modern field of Archaeological Resource Management, the realm of institutional management should be understood in relation to the notion of the general public juxtaposed against the emergent context of institutional management.

Against this backdrop, Carman (2002, 96-117) addressed the term 'public' as comprising of two definitions; 'institutional' and 'the general public'. With the emergence of Public Archaeology, which represents an important sub-field in relation to Archaeological Resource Management, the governmental or

institutional management of archaeological sites was important to the management of archaeological resources (for example, Jameson 2004, 21-58, Jameson 2008, 42-61, McManamon 2004, 40-54). Consequently, the discussions that took place focused on the on the role of institutions for the protection of archaeological resources. In this view, 'Public', means 'institutional'. It can be said that in the latest trends in Public Archaeology, the 'Public' often means people who are outside these institutions. In other words, in relation to the archaeological resource '(archaeological heritage) is a matter of the public concern' (Carman 1996, 3). In this context, even the institutional management of archaeological resources means reacting with 'public opinion' (Merriman 2004, 1). The institutions relevant to management must represent this public opinion.

For this reason, the key conception for the management of archaeological resources in the contemporary context is 'participatory'. Since the emergence of Archaeological Resource Management, and during the institutional management of archaeological resources, decision making has been limited to a certain group of persons including governmental officials and professionals. As regards the meaning of 'participatory', firstly, it incorporates decisions made on the basis of 'public opinion' (Merriman 2004, 1); or else the public take part in the decision-making process directly as a 'stakeholder' or 'interest group' with their own stake. Although the management of archaeological resources in this way is both complicated and dynamic, the notion of participation is crucial to the modern conception of management. For this reason, when the institutions or

professionals deal with issues related to an archaeological resource, the first step must be one of identifying stakeholders who are associated with the resource. Demas, for instance, suggested 'identifying stakeholders' (2000, 31-32) as the initial stage in management planning, noting that they should include governmental agencies, academics, local communities, tourism agencies, etc. The importance of the local communities in management planning has recently increased. McManamon and Hatton (2000, 10-14), therefore, emphasize the importance of local communities as the principal supporters of the preservation of archaeological resources. In order to improve such support, they also suggested 'education programme; national or local statutes or development control; partnership in resources stewardship; the integration of resource interpretation and preservation in to local economic development programme' (McManamon and Hatton 2000, 12).

## 2.2.2 Managed for whom?

### 2.2.2.1 *From the resource*

Obviously the transformations related to the 'for whom' issue could be easily and simply summarised as 'from limited persons to the wide general public'. However, this would neither represent a steady nor a gradual change. Returning to the Swedish Royal Proclamation of 1666, as the beginning of Archaeological Resource Management, or even in Treasure Trove in the medieval UK, the principal aim of the management was posed as an issue of ownership, such as the 'property of Crown'. Until the early 20<sup>th</sup> century this pretext for the protection

of resources continued. As chapter 2.2.1.1 shows, for instance, the principal aim of this legislation was to emphasize the protection of the resources in question by means of maintaining the distance between the resource and the public. It limited those for whom an association with the resources was possible, whether they were responsible for the resources' protection, or merely an interested party. Consequently, the benefit of the archaeological resources was limited.

#### *2.2.2.2 For the people*

In the second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century, the discourse surrounding the management of archaeological resources transformed significantly, in parallel with the transformation of the 'by whom' issue. Here, the public have been posed as important stakeholders; it can be said that a new relationship between the archaeological resources and the public was set up during this transformation. The public have had more interest in and desire to engage with their past(s). In 1970s, McGimsey's sentence, 'there is no such thing "private archaeology" (McGimsey 1972, 5)' highlighted this transformation precisely. In the meantime, however, challenges have emerged. In part, increases in public interest and concern – such as desire to learn, experience and feel of the past in search of identity, education or even simply leisure and entertainment – have emerged out of a rapid growth of archaeological data, such as that provided by Rescue Archaeology in 1970s in the UK. McGimsey (1972, 6), stated the public's concern as one of the 'completeness of data recovered and ultimate and continued public availabilities of the artefacts and permanently identified and with

adequate accompanying data permanently preserved'. By contrast, archaeology has necessarily professionalised in order to deal with the huge amounts of the data being generated. As a result, although a commitment to the public outreach was a major step forward, beyond sharing archaeological results among the relevant researchers, archaeologists still worked very much in isolation (Jameson 2008, 55-56). As archaeology professionalised as an academic discipline, the gap between the public and archaeological resources seems to have become wider. As a response to this 'for whom' question, the quality of interpretation of archaeological resources to the public became wrapped up in the process of resource preservation. Archaeologists or professionals engaged in Archaeological Resource Management, or with termination of rescue archaeology in many countries, have attempted to fill the gap between the public and professionals because they increasingly recognise the public as an important stakeholder for archaeology, and in particular as an intellectual owner of archaeological resources (see Chapter 2.3.1.2). Consequently the role of the general public has become an important topic in the management of archaeological resources, on account of their status as the subject of the management strategy.

#### 2.2.2.3 *Use of resource*

By the 21<sup>st</sup> century the status of the archaeological record as a critical social resource - and public property - had been cemented in the minds of many. Accordingly, the general public has become a more central topic and issue in the

field of Archaeological Resource Management, as one owner of the resources. McManamon (2000, 40) points out that 'the central purpose of Public Archaeology' is 'managing the nation's archaeological heritage in the best interests of the public'. For public interest, Merriman (2004, 3) insisted the need of 'the non-archaeological public for the service of archaeology'. This means that the active use of resources for the public has been emphasised. In this latest trend, the management of archaeological sites does not simply represent the care of the resource so as to preserve it in its current condition, but demands a means of positively interacting with general public through the use of the resources as a social resource such as through public lectures, tours of site, films, and television programmes as well as for presentation, interpretation, education, and recreation. As a result, the range and scope of archaeology has been extended. Schadla-Hall (1999, 147) defined 'Public Archaeology' as a sub-discipline 'concerned with any area of archaeological activities that interacted or had the potential to interact with the public', and uses the term, 'Alternative Archaeology', to explain the kinds of archaeological activities related to the public in contemporary archaeology (Schadla-Hall 2004, 255-271). In other words, the current management of archaeological resources includes attempts to engage with those who are less interested in the resource, as well as those who wish to be associated directly with the resource. In this context of positive uses of archaeological resources to interact with the public, the public is less a passive

consumer of the resource, and more the active producer of values of the resource.

Context	Topics	Issues	Transformation of perceptible issues		
Subject	Who	By whom	Administrative power & professionals	→	Institutional power & the public
		For whom	Limited people For resources	→	The general public

Figure 16: Transformation of issues related to 'who'

## 2.3 The Subject: 'why'- ownership and identity

### 2.3.1 Ownership and archaeological resources

#### 2.3.1.1 *Physical ownership; international trends*

Considering two broad contexts of management, the subject and object, the first question would be why archaeological resources should be protected? This topic is closely linked to the ownership issue because the emergence of Archaeological Resource Management was heavily based upon dealing with ownership issue. For instance, the Swedish Royal Proclamation of 1666, which is regarded as the first administrative management framework, highlighted the ownership right; 'declaring all objects from antiquity to be the property of the Crown'. In this early context, the archaeological resources belonged to an individual or relatively circumscribed group of persons - some private or individual - rather than being

a matter of common or public ownership. Although the declaration states that the archaeological resources may be owned by wider groups of people, in such instances as where the Crown represents general people, property – in this instance – does not mean the ‘common or public properties’ in the context of current Archaeological Resource Management (e.g. Carman 2005, 30).

In the discussion of and arguments relating in the modern context of Archaeological Resource Management in general, the archaeological resources are regarded as public or common property belonging to the general public.

Carman and Sørensen summarized such a trend as:

The important difference between the early activates and contemporary ones is that heritage management and practices are now carried out as part of institutional and public concerns and the concept of ownership has changed. Rather than belonging to individuals, heritage became something that was deemed to be held in trust (Carman and Sørensen 2009, 14).

At a glance, this seems to be adequate justification for the protection of archaeological resources. However, it also could aggravate the controversy relating to the ownership rights because, often, archaeological resources belong to a certain individual, group, or institution in the real world. As such, argument and controversy may very easily result.



### 2.3.1.2 *Intellectual ownership*

In order to resolve the controversy regarding ownership rights relating to archaeological resources, in the modern context of Archaeological Resource Management, intellectual ownership has been stressed. Archaeological resources are common or public property as remains of the human past, though they may be legally owned by, or belong to particular person(s). Many scholars in the field have highlighted the importance of intellectual ownership. Carman (2002, 45), for instance, said that 'archaeological remains and their treatment are a matter of 'public' concern'. Accordingly, McGimsey (1972, 5-6) insisted in his book, 'Public Archaeology', that 'there is no such thing as 'private archaeology''. And Merriman (1991, 1) said that 'the past belongs to all'. This argument is based on the idea that the archaeological resources are intellectually owned by the public regardless the legal or physical ownership right because all resources were made by humankind. International Committee on Archaeological Heritage Management (ICAHM), for instance, defined the resources as 'all vestiges of human existence and consists of places relating to all manifestations of human activity, abandoned structures, and remains of all kinds (including subterranean and underwater sites), together with all the portable cultural material associated with them' (ICAHM 1990, Article 1).

At a glance, the concept of intellectual ownership, or of archaeological resources as public property, offers good grounds for the management of these resources. At the same time, however, it may also be regarded as a cause of conflict and -

hence - as the source of controversy. This conception deviates from the general conception of ownership falls. Carman (2002, 82), for example, states the law and economics in the real world have generally accepted the private property regime, but that – despite this – archaeologists tend to break it.

Moreover, the 'common or public property' means a variety of owners. It encompasses a number of different stakeholders for the management of archaeological resources. These stakeholders may have different opinions depending on their different values. In addition, the form and type of archaeological resources is also more diverse today; for example, Skeates (2000, 10) points out that 'the archaeological heritage is always difficult to define in terms of the number, variety and spatial extent of examples of it'. Accordingly, the property rights relating to some archaeological resources are ambiguous, making the issues of ownership even more complicated.

### 2.3.2 Identity and archaeological resources

#### 2.3.2.1 *Formation and protection of identity with archaeological resources*

The reason for conflict and controversy relating to ownership are closely related to the issue of identity. It is generally accepted that archaeological resources are an important factor in the identity of a certain group of persons or societies; archaeological resources are the things that keep and store symbolic meaning for a certain group of people (Carman 2002, 73-75). Accordingly, the 'investigation of heritage has become a distinct research area within the Art and

Humanities' (Sørensen and Carman 2009, 3), and has become increasingly focused on the role of archaeological resources in their contemporary context (Smith 2004, 6-7). Identity is the answer for the fundamental questions of 'why archaeological resources should be preserved?' and 'for whom?' The issue is that the value of archaeological resources, which form the identity, is often different depending on the individuals, groups of people or societies concerned.

Given the interrelationship of identity and archaeological resources, the field emphasizes the importance of dealing with conflict and controversy at the starting point of management planning. In terms of identity and heritage or archaeological resources, as an independent academic field, Archaeological Resource Management emerged in 1980's. At that time, the main agenda of debate was with what heritage is (Sørensen and Carman 2009, 11). The term, heritage, is closely linked with identity (e.g. Aplin 2002). From another point of view, with regards to the interface between politics and modern archaeology, Smith explains that Cultural Resource Management (CRM) has been associated with public conflicts arising from the politicization of indigenous culture in the USA and Australia during the 1960s and 1970s (Smith 2004, 16). According to Smith, material culture is often used for reasons of cultural, social, and historical identity. Archaeology becomes mobilized as a 'technology of government' to deal with public conflict (Smith 2004, 13) with the role of Archaeological Heritage Management extending to a socio-political context beyond the technical process with which it is associated, and towards a practice for managing archaeological

resources including cultural, political and ethical concerns alongside the conservation and curation of material items; an institutionalization of archaeological knowledge and ideology; and the definition of and debates about cultural, historical, social, and national identities. (Smith 2008, 62-63).

More recent debates have focused on the role archaeological resources can play in forming the identity of groups of people, regions, or nations (e.g. Aplin 2002; Cleere 1989, 10). The term, 'formation', includes creating new values, as well as discovering and (re)forming the existing values. Although western studies on the identity began in 19<sup>th</sup> century (Sommer 2009, 105), it is the recent importance of the topic of social context in identity formation that is important for our purposes. As mentioned by a number of scholars, the values of archaeological resources are wide-ranging (e.g. Mason and Avrami 2004, 17-8). However, in the latest context for managing archaeological resources, their social value has becoming more important, because it is shaped and formed by the public, who are the most important stakeholders (de la Torre and Mason 2002, 3). Mason (2002, 12) pointed out, for example, that 'the social value includes 'place attachment', which refers to the social cohesion, community identity, or other feelings of affiliation that social groups derive from the specific heritage and environment characteristics of their 'home territory'. To sum up, the fundamental reason for preserving archaeological resources is the formation and maintenance of identity. In addition, identity provides the motivation, power, support, even

justification for preserving and using of archaeological resources in modern society as a whole.

Context	Topics	Issues	Transformation of perceptible issues		
Subject	Who	By whom	Administrative power & professionals	→	Institutional power & the public
		For whom	Limited people For resources	→	The general public
	Why	Ownership	Physical & Private properties	→	Intellectual & Common or public properties
		Identity	Representing and maintaining	→	(re)formation and (re)creation

Figure 17: Transformation of issues related to 'Who' and 'why'

## 2.4 The Object of the management: 'What'- value, assessment and authenticity

### 2.4.1 The value of archaeological resources

#### 2.4.1.1 *From tangible to intangible*

In the long history of the protection of archaeological resources, the major objective was seen as physically maintaining tangible remains, because 'the archaeological heritage is a fragile and non-renewable cultural resource' (ICCOMOS 1990, Article 2). This early doctrine for the protection of

archaeological resources, such as that embedded within the 1931 Athens Charter, tended to concentrate on the degree of intervention, while the 1964 Venice Charter established ground rules for physical conservation, restoration and excavation (Sullivan and Mackay, 2013; 1) including minimum intervention in conservation based on historic evidence on the context of a setting, using traditional materials and techniques, or - in exceptional cases - new scientifically proven techniques identifiable mark from original state and a distinguishable replacement part in restoration, taking scientific standards and recommendations in excavation and etc. (ICOMOS the Venice Charter 1964). ICCOMOS and ICAHM (1990, Article 5) also highly recommended minimizing the damage in archaeological excavation, which is an essential process for the presentation of a buried archaeological. Excavation: the gathering of information about the archaeological resources, should not destroy any more archaeological evidence than is necessary for the protection of or scientific objectives underpinning the investigation; a decision to excavate should only be taken after thorough consideration – because it is definitely accompanied by the destruction of a site.

The definition of tangible remains has expanded over time, encompassing concepts such as 'landscape' and 'setting', Fairclough (2008, 409), for example, defined 'landscape' as 'long-term narratives and explanations rooted in social, political and economic historic processes', while the Burra Charter stated '*Place* means site, area, land, landscape, building or other work, group of buildings or other works, and may include components, contents, spaces and views', and

'*Setting* means the area around a *place*, which may include the visual catchment' (Australia ICOMOS 1999, 2).

Alongside this the importance of 'intangible remains', which UNESCO defined in the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage as 'the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skill - as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts, and cultural space associated therewith - that communities, groups and in some case, individuals recognize as part of their heritage' (UNESCO 2003, Article 2). Logan (2007, 33) also defines heritage as 'embodied in people rather than in inanimate objects'.

Herrmann (1989, 33) defines 'cultural heritage' in three categories; intellectual heritage 'expressions in the achievements of science, literature, and fine art, and the overall concept of humanity'; material heritage 'expressions in concrete statements of human creativity, ranging from tools and objects in daily use to great intellectual achievement, manifested in material form as architecture and fine art'; and ideological tradition which is 'moulded by historical circumstances and events, a chain which spans the centuries'.

#### 2.4.1.2 *The traditional values to socio-economic values*

With the increased awareness of the tangible and intangible factors relating to archaeological resources, the term 'value' is often mentioned with reference to the field of Archaeological Resource Management today. Darvill (2005, 21) highlighted that 'the process of the valuation have become central elements in

archaeological resource management'. Recently the management generally means to discover, maintain and promote – it can be covered by the term 'sustain' – values of archaeological resources in the field of Archaeological Resource Management. The management plan is a 'decision making tool' (Mason 2008, 100; Demas 2002, 27) to sustain the value.

In order to effectively sustain the values of archaeological resources, scholars in the field of Archaeological Resource Management have suggested diverse types of values, because the values would be too diverse and are in flux. In order that the management plan operates as a rationale decision-making tool based on values, many scholars precede with an assessment of the values from within a typology of values. Mason (2008, 101), for instance, suggested a 'typology of heritage values' to programmatic assessment of values, and other scholars also classified the values of archaeological resources (Figure 18).

In the history of Archaeological Resource Management, historic, cultural or symbolic, spiritual or religious and aesthetic values have played an important role in valuation of archaeological resources and professionals working in relevant fields have commonly paid attention to discovering, maintaining and protecting these values. From this perspective, these values can be called 'traditional values'. Where some values are newly recognized in the contemporary context, they can be classified as 'contemporary values', such as social, political, and economic values. In contemporary management, the



contemporary socio-economic values have been regarded as being of greater importance than those of the past (e.g. Mason 2002, 5-30; 2008, 106-107; Byrne 2008, 149-173). It is because this value is continuously changing and differently owned depending on the time, place, and people concerned. Social value is produced, formatted, and made by the public in the present. This necessarily means that it has the potential to change again in the future. In order to understand such diverse values in flux, diverse views should be sought in the process of valuation, ranging from experts, citizens, communities, governments, and other stakeholders (Mason 2008, 101-102).

Economic value also incorporates an element of contemporary conceptions. In terms of heritage as a commodity, it should be continuously produced and consumed (Baram and Rowan 2004, 7). Although views focusing on the monetary benefit of archaeological resources have a long tradition, such as is the case for antiquities, they have been developed today under such rubrics as 'cultural tourism' or 'heritage tourism'. Jameson defined these developments as 'collaboration between conservationists and commercial promoters' (Jameson 2004, 59). The difference between the early conceptions of economic value and those in the present, is that the value is not assessed by simple numeric data. It is clear that heritage tourism represents massive industry in the world today; tourism is 12% of all global economic activities (Kurtz 2010, 206). But, this order value also should also incorporate non-economic or non-market value assessments' (Jameson 2008; Poor 2007).

To sum up, contemporary values should be understood on the basis of a wide range of views because they are more variable and flexible than traditional values, though traditional values are also changeable.

Reigl (1982)	Lipe (1984)	Burra Charter (1998)	Frey (1997)	English Heritage (1997)
Age	Economic	Aesthetic	Monetary	Cultural
Historical	Aesthetic	Historic	Option	Educational and academic
Commemorative	Associative-symbolic	Scientific	Existence	Economic
Use	Informational	Social (including spiritual, political, national, other cultural)	Bequest	Resource
Newness			Prestige	Recreational
			Educational	Aesthetic

Figure 18: Summary of heritage value topologies by various scholars and organisations (de al Torre and Mason 2002, 9: 2008, 102).

## 2.4.2 Assessing values and planning model

These classifications of diverse of archaeological resources are, on the one hand, a work to identify the diverse values associated with the resources; on the other hand, they also represent a process of assessing the values concerned. The management of an archaeological site represents a series of decision-making events ranging from daily maintenance, repair, and safeguarding of the site physically, to the enhancement of values and meaning of the site, visitor management, making strategies for presentation and interpretation etc. It means that often managers have to prioritise which management strategies to foreground, throughout a transparent process. Thus, Carman highlighted the

reasons for the assessment with Lipe and Cleere's perspectives (re-quoted from Carman 1996, 9).

*It would be utopian to consider that all cultural resources must be preserved in perpetuity – nor, indeed, would it be in the interests of contemporary and future societies (Cleere 1984, 127)*

*If.... we were to declare that all cultural materials more than two years old were to be preserved, our society would undoubtedly come rapidly to a halt, and we would soon stifle in our own refuse (Lipe 1984, 1)*

Based on this intellectual position and the typology or classification of values, relevant scholars and institutions have made effort to produce a rationale methodology through which to assess the values of archaeological resources. For instance, Mason (2002) suggested approaches, methods, and process for assessing the values of archaeological resources, including identification, elucidation and elaboration, and ranking and prioritization. At the same time, assessment plays an important practical role in management, such as through the statutory protection offered by the legal system. The Department of the Environment in the UK, for instance, developed the criteria to assess whether monuments are schedulable; Survival/Condition, Period, Rarity, Fragility/Vulnerability, Diversity, Documentation, Group Value, and Potential (Darvill 1995, 34-35). Although these assessment systems have been developed and improved continuously, there is no a singular agreed assessment form. This

is, perhaps, because, in contemporary society in particular, that are embedded in socio-cultural relationships are continuously changed and (re)shaped.

Recently many of the relevant scholars and institutions have paid attention to the management planning model in order to effectively protect the diverse values of archaeological resources; such as the 10 steps outlined in the Burra Charter (Australia ICOMOS 1999), Environmental Assessment by the World Bank, Pearson and Sullivan's Planning process (1995), Hall and MacArthur's Strategic Planning Model (1996), Demas' model (2002) as well as the planning process by the Getty Conservation Institute. These models and standards commonly include a step-by-step planning procedure, a rationale assessment of diverse values in play, methodological approaches to the protection of resources, and details of daily implementation of their management, and for the interpretation and presentation of the resources. Importantly, all of these planning models have their own typology of values and assessment systems, such as Statement of Significance.

### 2.4.3 Authenticity

When considering the object of the management of archaeological resources, an evaluation of the values of archaeological resources is an important concern. The protection of the resources may inevitably include reconstruction, restoration, adaptive reuse and ongoing maintenance, all of which have an impact upon authenticity. In practise, however, authenticity, is decided on the basis of the

physical integrity of the resources, or else by their current condition. Not surprisingly, a number of discussions and arguments relating to authenticity of archaeological resources have taken place.

#### 2.4.3.1 *Physical integrity to the intangible authenticity*

The Athens Charter of 1932 perhaps represents the earliest stages of this discussion in the history of Archaeological Resource Management; its main concern was the issue of authenticity in cultural heritage (Silva 1994). These discussions became clearer with the 1964 Venice Charter; Article 9 reads, 'It is our duty to hand them on in the full richness of their *authenticity*' and 'the process of restoration is.....based on the respect for original material and authentic documents...' (ICOMOS 1964). In this early approach, authenticity usually emphasized physical integrity; it related to judgements such as 'genuine', 'original' or 'not faked' (McBryde. 1977: 94); 'true', 'sincere', or 'original' (Jokilehto 1995: 18); 'the true as opposed the false, the real rather than fake, the original not the copy, the honest against the corrupt and the scared instead of the profane' (Lowenthal 1995: 369). As a result, the authenticity issue used to be regarded as the remit of conservation; 'Authenticity has been related to the development and perfection of the scientific method of conversion' (Ndoro. 1996: 11). This seems a natural step if one considers the tangible remains of the past as the earliest object of archaeological resource management.

With changes to the object and target of resource management, from the tangible to intangible, an expansion in the context relevant to authenticity has taken place; from the form, or shape, material to design, workmanship or setting and in the case of cultural landscapes their distinctive characters and components (UNESCO World Heritage Centre. 2003). This expansion can also be attributed to the emergence of new objects of management, such as 'landscape', 'setting', or 'surrounding' (see previous part, Chapter, 2.4.1.1). Others have suggested that a wider range of factors should be taken into account in assessments of authenticity, though there is some criticism of this position; for instance, insists that 'the Operational Guidelines has little consideration of the on-going creative tradition for to produce the property, because emphasis is placed on the physical characteristics of cultural properties' (Carman, 1995: 283).

#### *2.4.3.2 Diversity in authenticity*

Recently the issue of the authenticity of archaeological resources has demanded more dynamic perspectives because of the diversity of archaeological resources. The Nara Conference, of 1994, which was organized by INCOMOS and focused on the authenticity of cultural and archaeological heritage, should, perhaps, be the cornerstone of these discussions. 'Diversity' was to be the unifying concept behind the conference and its charter (ICOMOS 1994). The beginning of these discussions highlighted the context of authenticity as grounded in westernized notions. The Venice Charter of 1964 had adopted European attitudes and views when it brought the authenticity in Archaeological Resource Management to the

fore (Erder 1994, 25). The definition of authenticity that resulted cannot be appropriately translated in other worldwide contexts (Jokilehto 1995, 73). Sometimes it cannot be translated at all, as is the case for Japan (Ito 1995, 35). The context of authenticity is different depending on geographical differences, as well as the various backgrounds related to 'a range of cultural borders such as race, ethnicity, colour, gender, age, faith, regionalism, language, intellectual, and physical ability and sexual orientation' (Halla 1995, 317). In addition, although authenticity is an important factor in the management of archaeological resources, it does not carry the same importance universally. Larsen (1995, 364) points out, for instance, that 'even if many countries shared the same concept of 'authenticity', they would not always prioritise the same aspects. In other words, the context of authenticity changes over time and with cultural difference (Lowenthal. 1995, 122).

The Nara conference suggested a diverse range of contexts as a result (ICOMOS 1995). Here, the term diversity adopted a wide range of meanings from diverse places to diverse culture. Article 6 and 7 in the Nara Charter, which was adopted by the conference (ICCOMS 1995), stresses that cultural heritage takes a different form depending on time and space, and that cultural heritage should be respected across this variation. Diversity is important because 'authenticity is essential factor for judgments of value of culture and the judgments may differ due to cultural diversity' (Article 10 and 11). Admittedly, understandings of authenticity predicated on diversity may make the issue ambiguous and

confusing. Nevertheless, this discussion - ambiguous and confusing as it might be - must be had because the significance and values of archaeological remains cannot be understood without the authenticity; authenticity is an important element to measure and assess the values of archaeological resources with which to plan appropriate management practices (see Chapter 5.2.3 and 5.2.4)

Context	Topics	Issues	Transformation of perceptible issues		
Subject	Who	By whom	Administrative power & professionals	→	Institutional power & the public
		For whom	Limited people For resources	→	The general public
	Why	Ownership	Physical & Private properties	→	Intellectual & Common or public properties
		Identity	Representing and maintaining	→	(re)formation and (re)creation
Object	What	Values and assessment	Tangible & traditional values	→	Tangible + Intangible & Traditional + Contemporary
		Authenticity	Physical integrity	→	Diversity in authenticity

Figure 19: Transformation of issues related to 'Who', 'Why' and 'what'

## 2.5 The Object of the management; 'How'-assessment and interpretation & presentation

### 2.5.1 Presentation & interpretation and education

#### 2.5.1.1 *Presentation & interpretation*

The interpretation and presentation of archaeological resources has become the most important factor in the development of a planning model, because the aim



and purpose of management planning for archaeological sites is not only to discover the values provided by professionals – traditional values – , but also to value (verb) (Mason and Avrami 2000, 20-1). Interpretation and presentation to the public, who comprise a crucial stakeholder in the management planning process, plays an highly important role in elucidating existing contemporary values, as well reforming these values - where necessary - through the delivery of knowledge related to the meaning and importance of archaeological resources. For this reason, the management plan 'is not merely about saving the physical remains of the past; it is about telling something about ourselves to the present and future generation' (Mason 1999, 18).

In spite of the importance of interpretation and presentation, definitions of both terms are both ambiguous and overlapping. The International Charter for the Interpretation and Presentation of Cultural Heritage Sites defines interpretation as 'the full range of potential activities intended to heighten public awareness and enhance understanding of cultural heritage site' and presentation as 'the carefully planned communication of interpretive content through the arrangement of interpretive information, physical access, and interpretive infrastructure at a cultural heritage site' (ICOMOS ICIP 2008, 2). In view of these definitions, it could be said that the purpose of a management plan has been extended from presentation to interpretation; On the one hand, presentation could mean the display of physical remains of the past. This remains the important purpose underpinning most management plans. On the other hand,

the plan discovers or reproduces diverse values. Interpretation could relate to explanation and delivery of the values that are associated with the physical remains. Lowenthal (1985, xxiii), therefore, argues that 'tangible survivals provide a vivid immediacy that helps assure us there really was a past'. For this, he also stresses the role of interpretation; 'physical remains have their limitation as informants, to be sure; they are themselves mute, requiring interpretation' (Lowenthal 1985, xxiii).

Both of the terms place the general public as the crucial target. Jameson (1997, 12), for example, defines presentation and interpretation as 'the carefully planned communication of interpretive content through the arrangement of interpretive information, physical access, and interpretive infrastructure at a cultural heritage site'. In this definition, 'communication' is done in the space at the interface of the physical remains and the visitor. For this, a number of experts emphasise the importance of the public; Jameson (1997, 12) also explains that 'the public interpretation' acts as 'a broad scope of endeavours' to communicate with the public from educational program to communicative devices; Uzzell (2008, 502-505) uses the terms 'hot interpretation' which is the mediated emotional engagement with the heritage and the public in the interpretation process; hot interpretation represents an emotional attitude; McCarthy (2008, 538-44) mentioned story-telling as a presentation manner; Gibb (2008, 545-55) pointed to the role of archaeologists as 'playwrights'; Zimmerman (2003, 21-40)

emphasized the importance of writing for a public audience; while Allen (1995) suggested 10 rules for writing for or speaking to, a non-specialized audience.

#### *2.5.1.2 Education and archaeological resources*

With the growth of the importance of the public as a stakeholder, the role for archaeological resources in education has expanded. In general, the deployment of archaeological resources for educational purposes has a long history in the western world. While not educational in an absolute sense, in the U.K in the late 1890s, for instance, Pitt-River and Wheeler popularised archaeology to the general public (Corbishley 2011, 79). Since Tilden emphasized in the 1950s the importance of the interpretation of sites for public education, a number of archaeologists have argued for the extension of teaching archaeology to the wider public: from students to adults more generally (Stone 1994, 15). More recently, a number of archaeologists have argued the same point (e.g. Stone 1999; Jameson 1997; 2008; McManus 1996). As a result, archaeology was included in the formal school curriculum of the UK from the early 21<sup>st</sup> century, and increasing efforts to bring about the involvement of the general public in archaeology continues today (Corbishley 2011, 108).

The reason for the importance of education is that it is linked to many issues, both conceptual to practical. For example, Ucko (1994, xiii) insists that archaeological evidence is of immense political importance given its role in creating political legitimacy. In terms of heritage tourism, education, as well as

entertainments, are the prime factors in attracting visitors (Millar 2006). As such, a number of experts teaching history or archaeology place a great deal of attention on the practical teaching (e.g. Arthur and Phillips 2000). In a broad sense, it can be said that education and teaching represent a major part of presentation and interpretation.

Context	Topics	Issues	Transformation of perceptible issues		
Subject	Who	By whom	Administrative power & professionals	→	Institutional power & the public
		For whom	Limited people For resources	→	The general public
	Why	Ownership	Physical & Private properties	→	Intellectual & Common or public properties
		Identity	Representing and maintaining	→	(re)formation and (re)creation
Object	What	Values and assessment	Tangible & traditional values	→	Tangible + Intangible & Traditional + Contemporary
		Authenticity	Physical integrity	→	Diversity in authenticity
	How	Management strategies	Management approaches without strategic approach	→	Management strategies by assessment
		Interpretation & presentation	Displaying physical remains	→	Interpretation of values

Figure 20: Transformation of issues related to 'Who', 'Why', 'What' and 'How'

### **3 Case studies in South Korean site management: background**

#### **3.1 Jeongokri Prehistoric Site**

##### **3.1.1 Background**

###### *3.1.1.1 Discovery of site and archaeological value*

The Jeongokri Prehistoric site is one of the most important and famous archaeological sites in Korea. It is also internationally well known for both its scale, and its significance for Palaeolithic studies. The site is located in the northwest of South Korea (Figure 21). It was discovered in 1978 by Greg Bowen, an American soldier based in Dongducheon. Artefacts discovered at the site were then reported to Professor Kim, Won-Young of the Department of Archaeology in Seoul National University, who identified them as Acheulian type hand axes. On the basis of this discovery, the first excavations were conducted by Prof. Kim in 1979, with an excavation team consisting of five university museums and the National Museum of Korea. These excavations followed on from a field survey that was led by Prof. Kim in 1978 (see Figure 23). In total, more than 2,000 Palaeolithic stone tools were discovered, including Acheulian hand axes, during the field survey and subsequent excavations. As a result, in 1979 the site was designated as Historic Site No. 268 on account of its academic value. The first Acheulian-type hand axes to be found in East Asia were discovered here, a find that weakened Movius' hypothesis (see Figure 25 and Figure 112), which had proposed a dichotomous Palaeolithic tradition between the East and the West of the world (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009, 5). Jeongokri represents

the largest protected archaeological site in South Korea. Numerous Palaeolithic artefacts have been discovered in 13 archaeological excavations and surveys conducted since 1979 (Figure 23 and Figure 24).

In spite of the academic and archaeological significance of Jeongokri, it was only in the early 1990s that it came to be presented to and interpreted for the general public; instead, the site was considered to be a barrier to the overall economic development of the area. Visitors to the site were disappointed due to by lack of any noticeable remains, being unaware that such 'invisibility' was typical of buried archaeological sites. This is particular significant at Jeongokri, since the important feature of the site are not its tangible relics, but the stratum containing the ancient remains previously noted. This means that there was virtually nothing to show other than the explorative study; highlighting the difficulty of presenting and interpreting the values of buried archaeological sites in general. As a result of this overall context, the site has been neglected, suffering from uncontrolled landuse such as ploughing, road construction, and military facilities (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009, 2).

#### 3.1.1.2 *Public awareness of site values with onsite archaeological festival*

In order to deal with such destruction and negligence, it was decided that the general public should be made aware of the significance and importance of Jeongokri (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009, 2). The crucial momentum behind this publication came from the launch of a public festival at the site in 1993. A fundamental facet

of this festival has been public engagement. Since 1993, Professor Bae Ki-Dong and students in the Department of Cultural Anthropology at Hanyang University organised an annual 'Jeongokri Prehistoric Festival' at the site. The festival was aimed at forming a new framework for the management of archaeological sites; by increasing the public awareness of the values of archaeological sites by experience programmes (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009, 3) it was hoped that the site's protection and use would be assured. Initially, Professor Bae and the students of the University, who including archaeologists, led the festival; a range of activities, such as experience programmes for children, art installations, and performance art related to archaeology (e.g. Figure 29) were on offer. Until 1998, the festival was carried out without external financial support (whether from the local or national government). The detailed experience programme for children was devised by Professor Bae and his postgraduate students, and was evaluated and improved on year on year. Students in the Department of Cultural Anthropology in Hanyang University volunteered to assist with putting together the programmes and the festival. The festival has become very popular as a result of their energies: the number of visitors has increased from 200 in 1993 to 500,000 in 2000 (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009). It has become one of the most famous on-site programmes for the general public in South Korea, and a cornerstone of approaches to the use of archaeological sites for the public.

The success of the festival had two crucial results: first, the attention of the local government and, second, public awareness. The local government, Yeoncheon,

has recognised the value of the site based on the number of visitors in attendance at the festival. Crucially, these visitors promote the region and contribute to the local economy. As a result, the local government, Yeoncheon, started to provide financial support, and since 2000 has been one of the festival's main sponsors. Moreover, the 'Yeoncheon Jeongokri Palaeolithic Festival Operation Committee', which is a consultative group consisting of archaeologists, the local government, and local interested organizations, was set up to support the festival (Figure 28). In addition, the *Jeongokri* Site Management Office of Yeoncheon, which is responsible for managing the site, including the festival, was established in 2005 as part of the local government body.

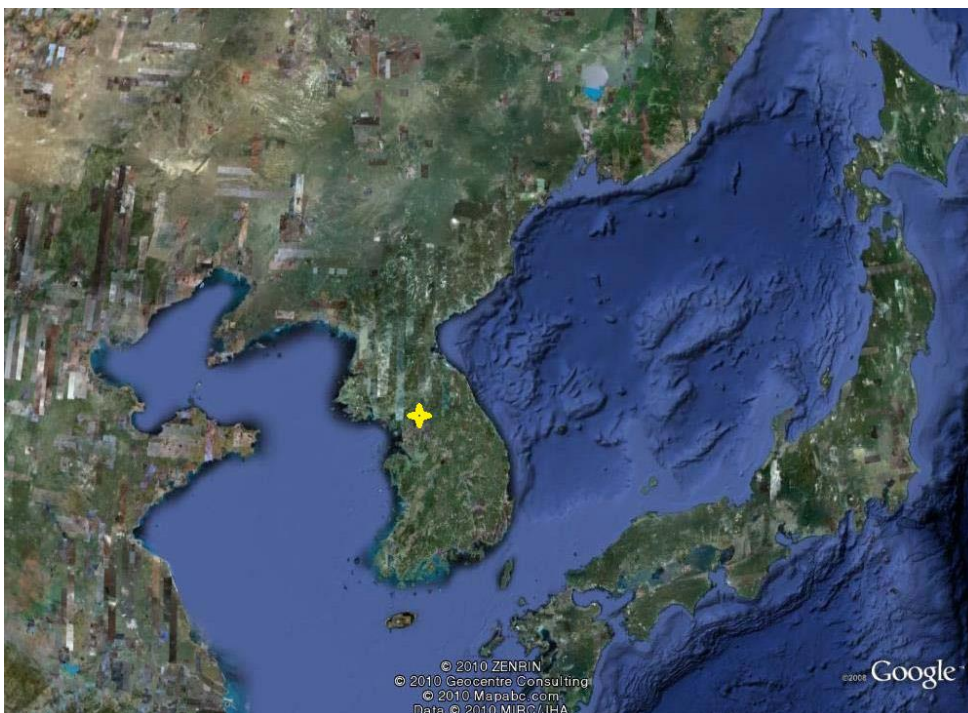


Figure 21: The location of Jeongokri (from Google maps).





Figure 22: Aerial photo of Jeongokri (from Google maps).

Date	Reason for Survey	Institute	artefacts	Institute responsible for artefacts <sup>6</sup>
April 1978.	Discovered the site	Greg Bowen	4	Seoul National Museum
May ~ August, 1978	Surface survey	Prof. Kim won-young		Need to be confirmed
1978	Surface survey	Seoul National University Museum	Over 500	Need to be conformed
March ~ April, 1979	The 1 <sup>st</sup> excavation (the 2 <sup>nd</sup> Area)	Keunguk University Kyenghye University	Over 1,219	University Museums and Other places
September ~ November, 1979	The 2 <sup>nd</sup> excavation (the 2 <sup>nd</sup> Area)	National Research Institute of Cultural Heritage Seoul National University Yeongnam University		
October ~ December, 1980	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> excavation (the 2 Area)	Keunguk University Kyenghye University		
October ~ November, 1981	The 4 <sup>th</sup> excavation (the 2 Area)	National Research Institute of Cultural Heritage Seoul National University Yeongnam University	Over 730	University Museums across the nation

<sup>6</sup> According to South Korean Law, all excavated artifacts should be transferred to national museums for storage once the excavation report has been completed. This system was, however, only established in the late 1990s with the increase of rescue excavations. Holding institutions for some excavated and discovered artifacts in 1970s is, consequently, uncertain.

July ~ August, 1982	The 5 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Geological research)	Keunguk University Kyenghye University National Research Institute of Cultural Heritage Seoul National University Yeongnam University	1	Seoul National University Museum
March ~ July, 1983	The 6 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Geological research)	The Geology Department, Seoul National University Yeongnam University		Seoul National Museum
October ~ December, 1986	The 7 <sup>th</sup> excavation (the 2 Area)	Seoul National University Museum	509	Seoul National University Museum
November ~ December, 1991	The 8 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Areas 1-2 / Rescue excavation for repairing road)	Hanyang University Museum/ the Cultural Anthropology Department	52	Hanyang University Museum
March ~ June, 1992	The 9 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Rescue excavation for repairing road)	Hanyang University Museum/ the Cultural Anthropology Department	422	Hanyang University Museum
November, 1994 ~ June, 1995	The 10 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Rescue excavation for repairing road)	Hanyang University Museum/ the Cultural Anthropology Department	1,023	Hanyang University Museum
November ~ December 1998	Rescue excavation for constructing building	Hanyang University Museum/ the Cultural Anthropology Department	12	Hanyang University Museum
June, 2000 ~ February, 2001	The 11 <sup>th</sup> excavation (all Areas)	Institute of Cultural Heritage Hanyang University	462	Hanyang University Museum
May ~ July, 2004	The 12 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Rescue excavation for constructing building)	Seoul National University	176	Seoul National University Museum
September ~ October, 2005	Rescue excavation for constructing building	Seoul National University	Under checking	Seoul National University Museum
April ~ June, 2006	The 13 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Rescue excavation for constructing museum)	Seoul National University		Seoul National University Museum
August, 2006	The 14 <sup>th</sup> excavation (Rescue excavation for constructing residential area)	Institute of Cultural Heritage Hanyang University		Hanyang University Museum

Figure 23: Archaeological surveys at *Jeongokri* (ICPHY 2003, 25).

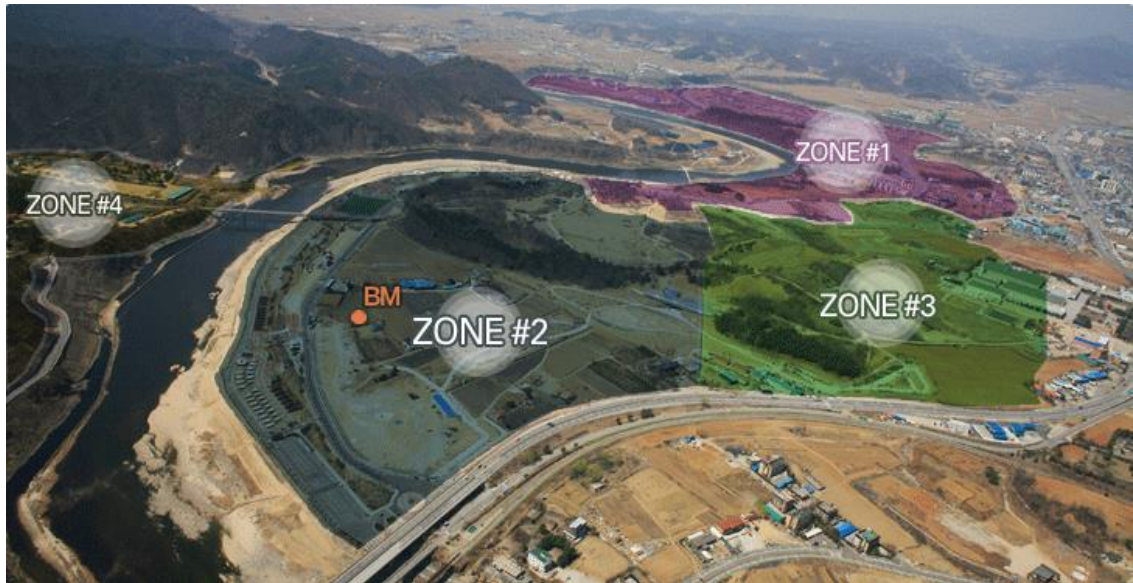


Figure 24: Floor plan of excavation (from the *Jeongokri* Museum web-page)<sup>7</sup>.

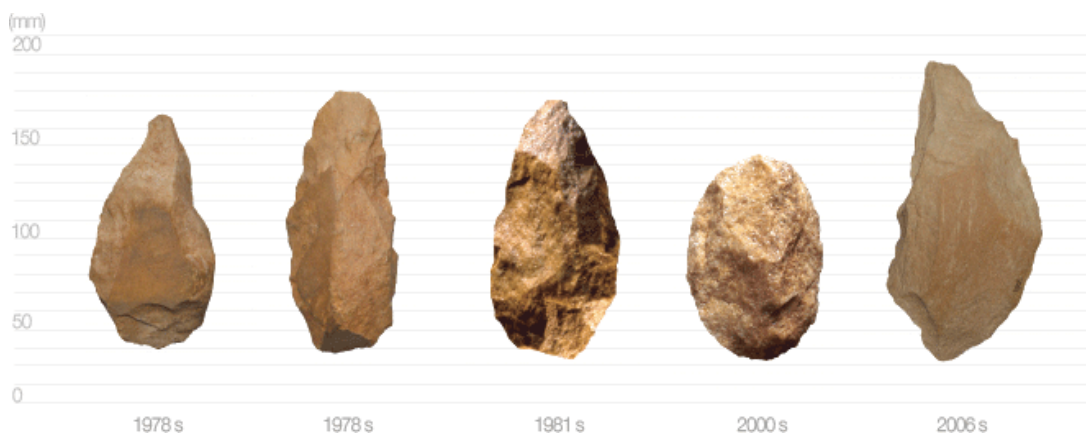


Figure 25: Acheulean hand axes discovered at *Jeongokri* (from the *Jeongokri* Museum web-page).



Figure 26: The *Jeongokri* Prehistory Museum (from the *Jeongokri* Museum web-page).

<sup>7</sup> BM in the figure is a reference point which was set up in the first excavation 1979 to maintain consistency in all archaeological excavation at *Jeongokri*.





Figure 27: Exhibition in the Jeongokri Prehistory Museum (from the Museum web-page).

	DATE	THEME	MAJOR CONTENTS	NOTES
1st	April 11, 1993	Beast Human's Travel to Modernity	East Asia Archeology Research Institute <sup>8</sup>	Cultural festival celebrating the opening of the Jeongok Paleolithic Site Hall
2nd	May 5, 1994	First humans & Families Adapting to Nature	East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology Dept.	Celebrating 1st anniversary of the prehistoric hall and Children's day
3rd	May 5, 1995	How to live on a stone axe	East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology	Cultural festival celebrating the opening of the Jeongok Paleolithic Site Hall
4th	May 4~5, 1996	Into the time of human beginnings	East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology	Started celebrating on the eve of the festival
5th	May 4~5, 1997	Exploring the lifestyle of the first humans	East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology	Exploring the historic sites of the Hantan/Imjin rivers area/Exhibition of world earthenware.
6th	May 4~5, 1998	If I were an early human	East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology	Number of festival-goers reached about 50,000
7th	May 4~5, 1999	1st day in the prehistoric village	Yeoncheon Culture Center, East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology	Yeoncheon-gun accounted for the total festival budget

<sup>8</sup> The Institute of East Asian Archaeology was founded by Prof. Bae KI-Dong to carry out the Jeongok Prehistoric Festival and to study Public Archaeology in 1993 with beginning the festival.

	DATE	THEME	MAJOR CONTENTS	NOTES
8 <sup>th</sup>	May 5, 2000	No specific theme	Yeoncheon-gun Yeoncheon Culture Center	Yeoncheon-gun tried to open the festival single-handedly
9 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~5, 2001	Touring the prehistoric Jeongok	Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee Yeoncheon Culture Center East Asia Archeology Research Institute	Considering mid- and long-term development plan
10 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~5, 2002	Into the prehistoric village	Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee Yeoncheon Culture Center East Asia Archeology Research Institute	Became a provincial-wide festival designated by Gyeonggi Province
11 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~5, 2003	Enjoy experiencing the Paleolithic Age	Yeoncheon-gun East Asia Archeology Research Institute HYU Cultural Anthropology	Held the 1 <sup>st</sup> international academic seminar Reinforced festival programs
12 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~5, 2004	Paleolithic tools in my own hands	Yeoncheon-gun Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee	2 <sup>nd</sup> international seminar Expanded the Jeongok-ri experimental school Yeoncheon-gun tried to enlarge the festival
13 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~8, 2005	Sound of Jeongokrian's breathing	Yeoncheon-gun Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee	Ministry of culture & tourism designated it to be a promising festival
14 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~8, 2006	Sound of Jeongokrian's breathing	Yeoncheon-gun Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee	Ministry of culture & tourism designated it to be a promising festival
15 <sup>th</sup>	May 4~8, 2007	Sound of Jeongokrian's breathing	Yeoncheon-gun Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee	Ministry of culture & tourism designated it to be a promising festival
16 <sup>th</sup>	May 2~6, 2008	Sound of Jeongokrian's breathing	Yeoncheon-gun Yeoncheon Jeongok-ri Paleolithic Festival Operation Committee	

Figure 28: The history of *Jeongokri* Festival (from the *Jeongok* Prehistory Museum web-page).



Figure 29: *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival.

### 3.1.2 Management planning

The financial and administrative support for the festival and the site led to the creation of a site management plan (2003) for the use and development of the site, resulting in the construction of an on-site museum, which was opened in 2011. Since 1993, when the festival was launched, archaeologists, including Prof. Bae Ki-Dong, had argued for the need for a long-term plan for the protection and use of the site, including the construction of an on-site museum, a history park, and festival improvements (ICHPY 2003, 13). Post-1998, when the number of visitors to the festival reached 50,000, the local government also recognized the value of the site and agreed that there was a need for a management plan. In particular, the local government was strongly of the opinion that visitors to the site and the festival might represent a resource with which to improve the local

economy. It can thus be said that the visitors were an important driving force in initiating the site management plan (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009).

In 2003, Yeoncheongun funded a planning project for *Jeongokri*, and the Institute of Cultural Properties Hanyang University (ICPHY) put together a contract for the project alongside Yeoncheongun. The management plan report, '*The Master Plan for Jeongokri Prehistoric Site*', was published in 2003 (ICPHY 2003). The plan involved the documentation of background information, strategies for building an on-site museum, recovering the environment based on paleo-environmental data (in order to construct a historic park), the promotion of tourism and the development of the neighbouring area, and ideas for improving the festival. In accordance with the plan, '*The Master Plan for Jeongokri Museum*' was subsequently conducted by the ICPHY in 2007. Based on these plans, the local government was granted a budget from the national government for their implementation. In 2011 the *Jeongokri* Prehistory Museum opened near the periphery of the site (while the site itself had been reformed as a Historic Park in 2008). In the meantime, private land on the site was purchased by the local government (see Chapter 4.3.1.1).

It is clear that these management plans contributed to the improvement of the site's condition. The management of the *Jeongokri* site has been regarded as an example of excellence in South Korean archaeology (Lee, Han-Young 2009); for instance, the ICPHY organized a similar education programme at other



archaeological sites (Amsadong Neolithic Site and Kanghwa Dolmen Park), while similar programmes have been conducted at archaeological sites elsewhere in South Korea.

On the other hand, the plans also raise a number of issues when compared with the ideal management planning process (see Chapter 4). These relate to the participatory management planning process (Chapter 4.3.1), the administrative management framework (Chapter 4.3.2), the assessment of values, in all of their diversity, (Chapter 4.5), and the decisions that were made regarding conservation, presentation and interpretation strategies as they related to the site (Chapter 4.6). This research will explore these issues in order to identify the challenges in management planning in South Korea.

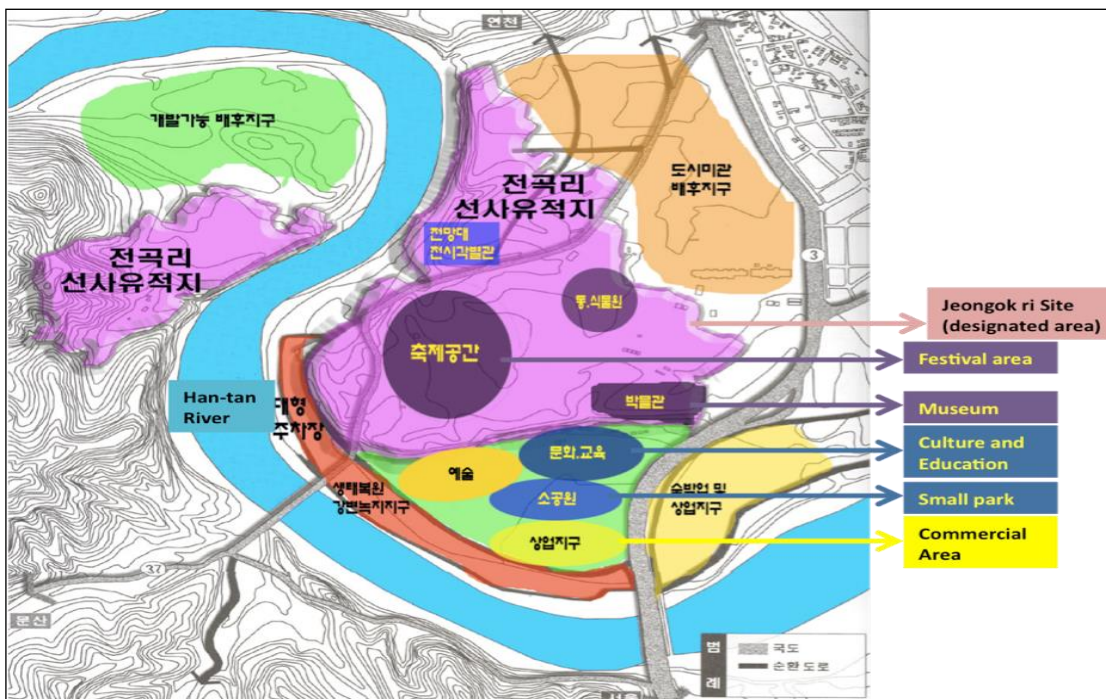


Figure 30: Brief land use plan in the management plan of 2003 (ICPHY 2003).



## 3.2 *Sosadong*

### 3.2.1 Background

#### 3.2.1.1 *Discovery of site and archaeological value*

*Sosadong* is typical of the archaeological sites excavated and preserved in South Korea through the application of rescue archaeology in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century. The site dates to the Bronze Age, and was discovered during a field survey conducted by the ICPHY in 2003. The archaeological excavations were conducted by the Korea Institute of Heritage (KIOH) between 2004 and 2006, prior to the development of a new town in the area. The excavation followed the process outlined in the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*: trial trench survey to identify the type and scale, followed by a full investigation of the whole development area, as well as the administrative process; for instance, the budget and time allowance was legally agreed through the establishment of a contract between the developer and the excavation unit (YM Construction Ltd and the Korea Institute of Cultural Heritage (KIOH)), while the trial trench investigation and excavation permissions were only granted after the CHA had examined these aspects (see Figure 31). In fact, the excavation plan and budget for *Sosadong* were altered four times in three years of excavation due to the large amount of archaeological material recovered. The duration of excavation increased from 355 working days to 430 working days, and the budget was increased from 882,166,000 won (c. £ 490,000) to 1,417,806,000 won (c. £ 787,000) (see Figure 31). Such changes are not unusual in South Korea' the typical nature

of buried archaeological sites – their invisibility (see Chapter 1.2 and Chapter 1.3) – means that excavations are often extended. In order to justify such changes, any extension of duration and/or budget for an excavation have to be considered by an Expert Meeting (see Chapter 4.3.2.2), and the permissions for such changes are granted by the CHA based on the advice of the Expert Meeting. This was established in 1999 as the standard procedure for rescue archaeology in South Korea. *Sosadong* is a very typical case of South Korean rescue archaeology and demonstrates the approaches through which the issues and challenges of rescue archaeology, and the post-treatment of excavation, might be addressed.

Date	Progress
October 2003	Submission of field survey report by ICPHY.
August 2004	Contract for test trench survey between YM Construction Ltd and KIOH. Granting of permission for test trench survey in Areas Ga and Na by the CHA.
October 2004	Start of test trench surveys for Areas Ga and Na by the KIOH.
December 2004	Expert Meeting regarding the test trench surveys for Areas Ga and Na.
January 2005	Granting of permission for full excavation in Area Ga and test trench survey in Areas Da and La. Change of contract for excavation (Ga) and additional test trench surveys (Da & La)
January 2005	Start of test trench survey in Da and La, and excavation in Ga.
March 2005	Expert Meeting regarding test trench survey in Da and La, and excavation in Ga.
April 2005	Extension of time for excavation in Areas Ga, Da and La.
April 2005	Granting of permission for test trench survey in Area Ma. Change of contract. Additional test trench surveys.

June 2005	Inspection by the CHA.
June 2005	Expert Meeting regarding Areas GA and Ma.
September 2005	Expert Meeting regarding Areas GA and Da.
November 2005	Expert Meeting regarding Areas GA and La.
January 2006	Extension of time and budget for excavation in Area La. Change of contract for extension of time and budget.
July 2006	Expert Meeting regarding reburial method and plans for historic park.
August 2006	Completion of excavation.
August 2006	Reburial of Area La.

**Figure 31: Brief progress of the *Sosadong* excavation.**

As a result of the excavation, 365 archaeological features were discovered, including a Bronze Age settlement (81 houses) and 190 tombs dating from the 10<sup>th</sup> to the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Figure 33). The settlement dates to between 1,300 BC and 500 BC, and has been seen as a significant site for the study of Bronze Age culture and history in Korea (Lee, Hwa-Jong & Kang, Bung-Hak 2008). *Sosadong* is the largest Bronze Age settlement site in the middle area of the Korean peninsula, and is expected to provide archaeological evidence for the study of the middle Bronze Age social structure in South Korea, particularly in relation to issues such as 'community-oriented society' (Barnes 2015, 263). Moreover, the houses uncovered have a different layout, which partly reflects the Bronze Age houses of the southern part of Korea, and partly the northern tradition of domestic architecture. Thus, *Sosadong* presents cultural interaction between the northern and southern parts of the Korean peninsula in the Bronze Age (Lee, Hwa-Jong and Kang, Byeong-Hak 2008, 684-685).

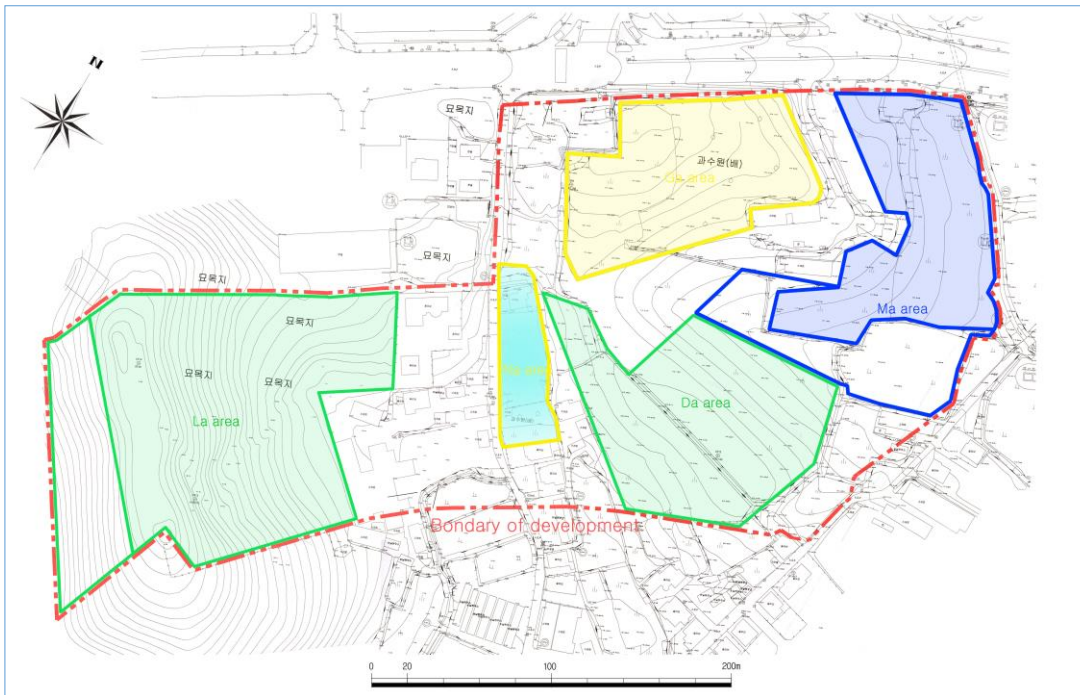


Figure 32: Layout of the *Sosadong* excavation.

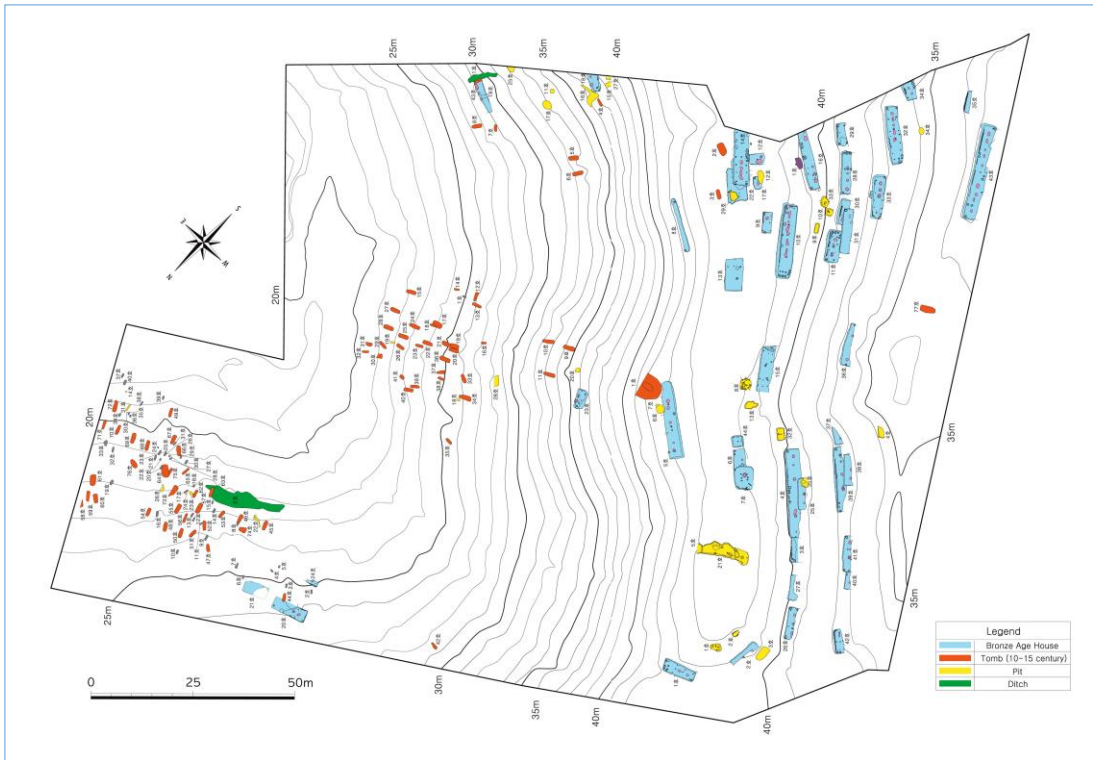


Figure 33: Layout of the Bronze Age settlement in Area La of *Sosadong* (from the excavation report (KIOH 2006))

### 3.2.1.2 | *Post treatment of the excavation*

Despite its archaeological significance, the *Sosadong* site was only partly preserved *in-situ* (about 15% of the total 45,954 m<sup>2</sup>) due to the development plan, as a result of protracted negotiations between archaeologists, developers, and the local and national governments. These negotiations included six Expert Meetings, formal and informal meetings between stakeholders – particularly between the archaeologists and the developers –, and discussions within the Cultural Heritage Committee, which is an advisory group consisting of professionals for the CHA. Instead, the archaeological evidence was recorded by high resolution 3-dimensional laser scanning in advance of the demolition phase (Figure 38), and the recorded data was used to produce a 3-D digital reconstruction (see Figure 39). In addition, a historical park was built on the *in-situ* preserved part in order to present the significance of the site (Figure 40). The park comprised of excavated Bronze Age houses, reburied in local soil. In order to distinguish the houses, bushes were planted along a boundary line (Figure 41).

On the one hand, given the significance and values of the site that were identified by excavation, these protection approaches represented the best option; on the other hand, given the South Korean situation – less than 10% of excavated sites have been protected by *in-situ* in rescue archaeology (Figure 5 and Figure 6) – *Sosadong* could be considered an exemplary case for the protection of buried archaeological sites. Most sites excavated by rescue archaeology are destroyed after they have been recorded due to the pressures

of economic development (Chapter 1.4), as well as because of the typical invisibility and fragility of such sites (Chapter 1.2). Although significant efforts have been made for the protection of *Sosadong*, the excavation also highlights the typical issues and challenges of rescue archaeology in South Korea, which emerged with the revision of the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* in 1999. Many of these issues and challenges appear to have been caused by the legal framework; for instance, the revision cannot cover the various issues and challenges in rescue archaeology. When the *Sosadong* excavation were carried out the *Buried Heritage and Investigation Law 2011*, which aims to deal with issues and challenge related to buried archaeological sites, was not yet in place. However, the issue is not simply the number of *in-situ* sites that are preserved following excavations. The challenges concerning the management of buried sites (Chapter 1.4) are diverse, including exclusive decision-making processes (Chapter 4.3.1), ownership issues (Chapter 4.4.1), the understanding and assessment of diverse values (Chapter 4.5.1), and the need to devise approaches for the presentation and interpretation of values (Chapter 4.6).

### 3.2.2 Management planning

Ideally the management process should encompass those issues and challenges related to rescue archaeology, which should be treated within a conception of management, with archaeological excavation regarded as part of the plan. At present, it cannot be argued that rescue excavations have taken place in the context of an overarching plan; for instance, Bale (2015) pointed out ‘a lack of

scholarly and academic planning and implementation (of rescue archaeology)' (Bale 2015, 324) is a crucial problem in South Korean archaeology; moreover, it is caused by socio-economic factors, such as the pressures of economic development (Bale 2015, 324). In other words, rescue excavation has not been undertaken within an explicit or systematic plan – whether before, during, or after excavation – but, rather, it has been carried out according to an 'administrative' conception (Bale 2015, 321) – for example, as a mandatory step within a development project.

As with the South Korean situation in general, no formal management plan was undertaken for *Sosadong* – before, during, or after the excavation of the site – and the discovery, with the excavation of the site merely constituting a legal step in the developmental project. It cannot be regarded as surprising that investigations at *Sosadong* were conducted according to the trajectory that is typical of Korean rescue archaeology. All of the costs of the excavation and post-excavation treatment were borne by the developers, and the timeframe – and the potential for delays resulting from archaeological excavation – was a risk borne by the developers. Consequently, conflicts arose between the archaeologists and the developers; for example, the developers were excluded from parts of the decision-making process (see Chapter 4.3.1 and Chapter 4.4.1). As such decision making, including assessment criteria and standards, was opaque (Chapter 4.5.1), as was the process of justifying the presentation and interpretation approaches to the developers (Chapter 4.6).



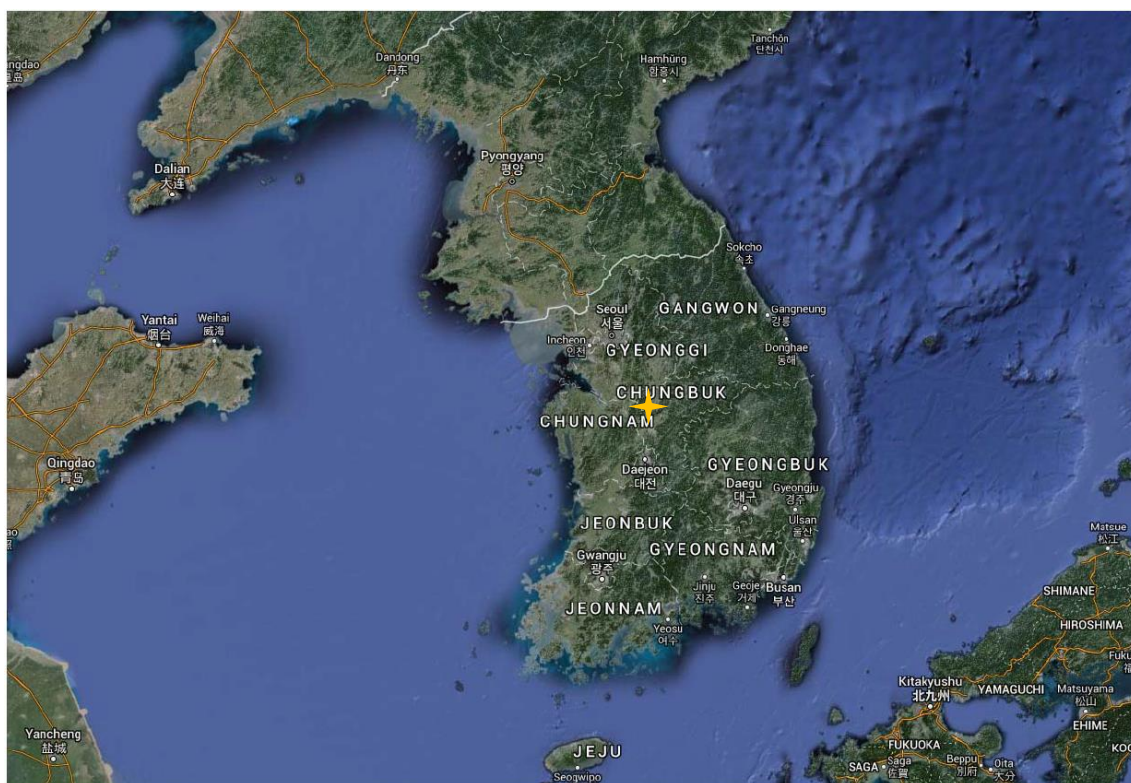


Figure 34: The location of Sosadong (from Google maps).



Figure 35: During the excavation in *Sosadong* in 2005 (from excavation report (KIOH 2006)).





Figure 36: After the excavation in *Sosadong* in 2007 (from excavation report (KIOH 2006)).



Figure 37: Excavated Bronze Age houses and artefacts in *Sosadong* (from excavation report (KIOH 2006)).





Figure 38: 3-D scanning work in *Sosadong*.

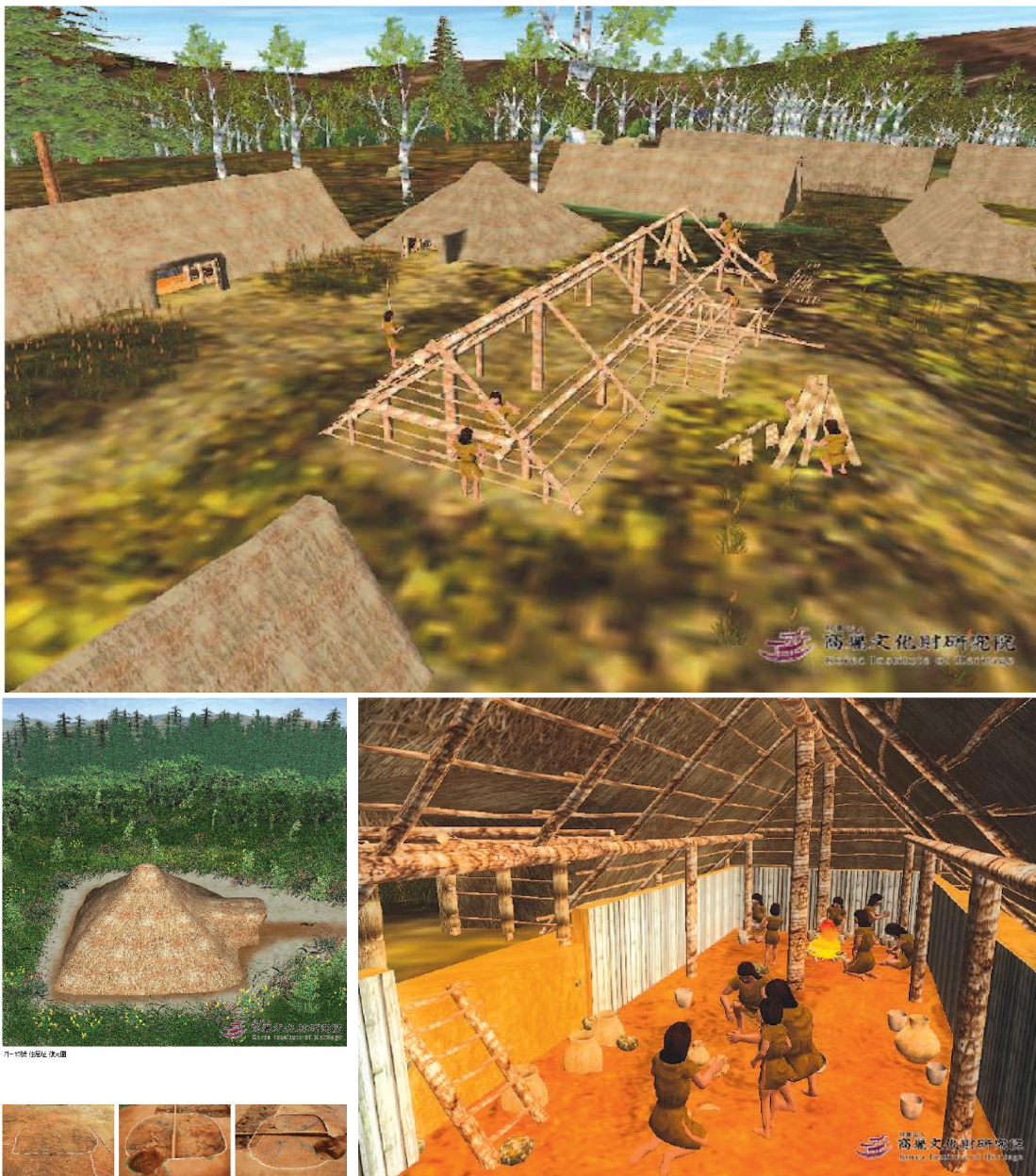


Figure 39: Examples of 3-D image reconstruction of *Sosadong* (from excavation report (KIOH 2006)).





Figure 40: Reburial of *in-situ* preservation part in *Sosadong*.



Figure 41: *In-situ* preserved part of the *Sosadong* for a park (from excavation report (KIOH 2006)).

## 4 Current approaches to Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea: issues and challenges

### 4.1 The development of the legal framework

With regards to administrative management in South Korea, the first important step was the enactment of the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act* in 1962 (e.g. Han, Na-Rae 2004; Kim, Hong-Real 2005, 33; Korea Legislation Research Institute webpage), which provided the first legal framework for the realisation of Article 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of Korea (Han, Na-Rae 2004, 91): ‘the State shall strive to sustain and develop cultural heritage and to enhance national culture’ (Korea Legislation Research Institute webpage). Subsequently, legislation has played an important role in the management of archaeological resources in South Korea. Indeed, the *Act* has been repeatedly amended to deal with dynamic issues and challenges over time. Consequently, many now believe that its framework is broken, and that it is at the limits of its capacity to adapt to the dynamic changes in cultural heritage (Kim, Hong-Real 2005, 37-38). A diversification of the archaeological resources treated by the *Act* has inevitably seen the emergence of new issues and challenges. For the effective legislative management of cultural heritage, new legislation has been enacted which deviates from the *Act* in order to deal with these increasing and complicated issues and challenges – e.g. the *Cultural Heritage Preservation Fund Act* in 2009, the *Act on Cultural Heritage Maintenance, etc.* in 2010, the *Special Act on the Preservation and Promotion of Ancient Cities 2011* and, most importantly for the purposes of this research, the *Act on the Protection and Inspection of Buried*

*Cultural Heritage 2010*. Given the adoption of the legislation in South Korea, some scholars, such as Bale (2005, 318), have argued that 'Korea has built a relatively strong system of cultural heritage legislation that lawfully protects archaeological heritage somewhat effectively'. This is certainly true in part; for example, the revision of the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act* in 1999 was an important moment in rescue archaeology – archaeological investigation is now a legally mandatory precursor to any construction work of more than 30,000 m<sup>2</sup>, and permission should be granted by CHA before and after field survey, trial trench survey and excavation. In addition, the costs of archaeological work have to be unilaterally met by the developers (Article 43 in the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* and Article 4 in the *Enforcement Decree of the Protection of Cultural Properties Act 1962*) (see Chapter 1.4). As such, this legislation has significantly contributed to the protection of buried archaeology against destruction from development projects.

In part, however, such 'administrative' (Bale 2015, 319) archaeology is also an impediment to the protection of archaeological resources in changeable circumstances. As an amendment to the *Act* or an enactment of new legislation, it implies that the issues and challenges related to archaeological resources have become more varied and complicated over time. As Chapter 2 makes clear, they are indeed more changeable and complicated - and even conflicting - than the legislation is able to fully encompass. For instance, the questionnaire data shows a big gap in the management of cultural heritage: between decision-makers who

possess power in practise (the national government), and those whose only grasp is theoretical (local people) (Figure 46 and Figure 47). It is true that there is no legal framework in the world that could be expected to deal with all of the issues and challenges relevant to archaeological resources. The gap in South Korea, however, is of a different order. It represents a difference between the roles of the administrative or legal system – the role the administrative system based on the legal system is to provide a framework based on empirical principles, rather than providing a solution for every eventuality. The South Korean system, however, tends to control or regulate all matters related archaeological resources within the legal system with deficient principles on account of the field's infancy, and fails - as a consequence - to be fully effective.

## 4.2 A field in its infancy

Against a background of changing international paradigms regarding the management of archaeological resources (Chapter 2), which recognise a wider range of values and uses for archaeological resources, public interest in culture and history in South Korea is growing (see Chapter 1.1). With this, complex issues and challenges have emerged in relation to the management of archaeological resources in South Korea (Chapter 1.4). In spite of the 1962 enactment of the first law, it remains fair to say that the field is infancy on account of more recently emergent issues, challenges and interests. For instance, between the 1970s and 80s Korea's prioritisation of economic development meant that there was very little attention given to archaeological resources.

The discipline of archaeology developed significantly with the modernisation of the country in the late of 20<sup>th</sup> century, but Archaeological Resource Management has a much shorter history as an academic field. Since Archaeology was introduced during the Japanese colonial occupation (Barnes 2015, 20), Korean archaeological excavations have rapidly grown in number and scope through the 1990s (e.g. Figure 2). As a consequence, the quality of archaeological investigations is among the finest in the world, with the amount of scholarly activity as high, or higher, than that in most western countries (Bale 2015, 318-320). On the other hand, the first related university course for Archaeological Resource Management, the department of Cultural Properties Management, opened in the Korean National University of Cultural Heritage (NUCH) in 2000. As a result, there are few individuals professionally qualified to discuss the management of archaeological resources in recent value-based approaches.

This short history is problematic, because there is a lack of debate regarding principles through which the growing challenges might be dealt with. Although all resources necessarily require a specific management approach, they also need consensus to establish stakeholder-agreed approaches. Since the emergence of Rescue Archaeology in South Korea in the 1990s, decisions relating to the management of buried archaeological sites have become a social issue. Questions have been raised as to whether excavation is necessary and, if so, on what scale, for how long, and at what cost? Further questions have been raised as to how to manage sites and materials after excavation, including the

decisions for *in-situ* display, reburial, remove, recording, etc. The *Cultural Heritage Protection Act* was revised many times, and new legislation, the *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, was enacted in 2011 in order to deal with some of these questions; however the issues remain ongoing. The existing legal framework lacks sufficiently defined principles to underpin decisions. The absence of clear principles for decision-making has also impacted a number of archaeological site management plans that have been established over the past two decades. This chapter will explore the issues and problems related to buried sites in South Korea, using the international context explored in Chapter 2, and the material from the case studies of *Jeongokri* and *Sosadong* (for a background to these see Chapter 2 and Chapter 3). The recognition of specific issues and problems identified here will then form the platform for developing a management planning model (Chapter 5).

## 4.3 The Subject: 'who' - by whom and for whom?

### 4.3.1 Managed by whom?

The issues here revolve around who should take part in the decision-making process and who has the power to make decisions (see Chapter 2.2).

Idealistically, one might take the view that all the people who are associated with archaeological resources - the stakeholders - should be involved in decision-making, and could be equally influential. The international discipline of Archaeological Resource Management may advocate this participatory approach



in theory, but the reality is that it is seldom the case in practice. Nor does it mean that all stakeholders should have equal power in the decision-making process, but that should have different power and roles depending on their positions, responsibilities and knowledge with regards to management. Thus, while there are obviously a wide range of stakeholders who are associated with each and every archaeological site, and who should be involved in decision-making, their interests should be fully understood in relation to their different roles. In this regard, South Korean issues and challenges can be explored by examining both the range of participants, and the role of power, in decision-making.

#### 4.3.1.1 *Range of stakeholders*

In South Korea, archaeologists usually take the lead in management planning for buried archaeological sites. In part, it may seem rational that the planning should be led by **archaeologists**, as they are a major stakeholder, and, as a professional group, they possess the most information about the site among the different stakeholders. Moreover, as previously noted, there are few professionals competing for the role of 'expert' from the field of Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea, on account of its relative infancy.

Management planning in South Korea is mostly conducted as locally or nationally government-funded projects. The responsible government body selects an organisation comprised of those professional archaeologists who are most closely associated with the archaeological site in question as a condition of

their contract. Not surprisingly, any organisation or archaeologist that is involved in the archaeological investigation of a site takes advantage of this system, and a group of professionals, such as archaeologists, conservators, historians, architects etc., take part in the planning. Alongside such professional groups, the **local or national government** also has a role as an important stakeholder, because they provide financial support for planning. They are also the body that is legally responsible for managing an archaeological site, in so far as archaeological resources are public property (see Chapter 2.3.1.2). From this perspective, the issue in South Korea is that another important stakeholder is often missing: the **public**. In part, it is apparent that not everyone can be equally involved in management planning because different groups of people are associated with a site in different ways. They should be given different powers and roles in planning, depending on their different associations, such as landowners, local people and developers (Chapter 2.2.1.3).

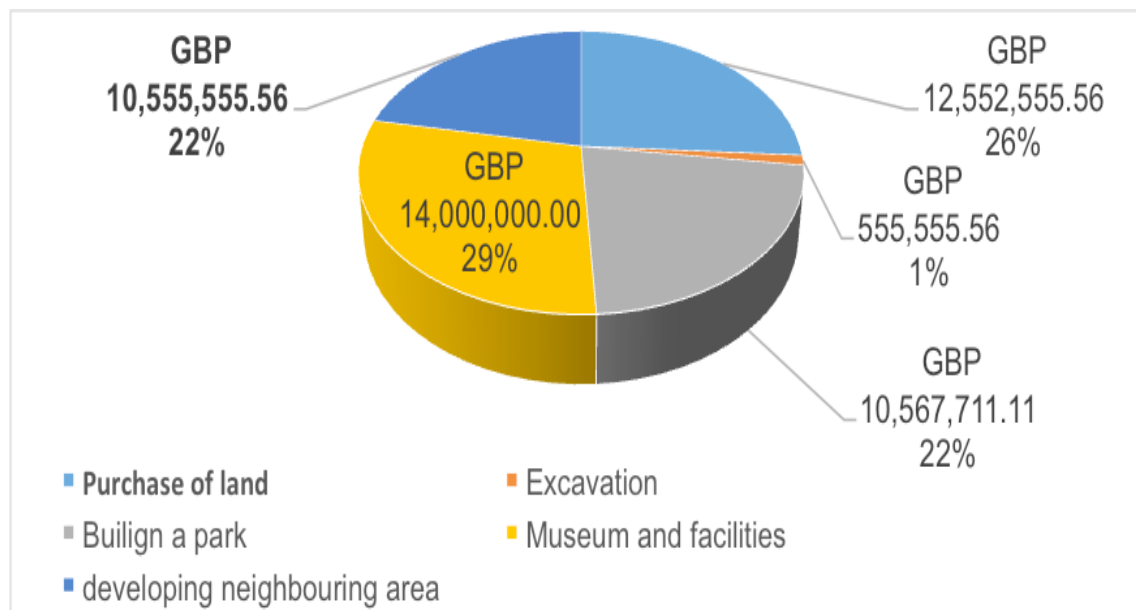


Figure 42: Brief budget to implement Jeongokri management plan 2003 (data from Yeoncheon)

Many current management plans in South Korea stress the importance of a site and preservation strategies that protect against diverse risks range from physical damage, uncontrolled land use and vandalism, to the public's indifference or ignorance as the principal aims of the plan. The *Jeongokri* management plan (ICPHY 2003, 17-20) also emphasised the capacity of the archaeological site to illustrate the Palaeolithic culture in South Korea, while highlighting, as a risk, the fact that 64% of the land on which the site stood was owned by private owners, which meant that the land could not be fully controlled. In order to deal with this risk, the management plan suggested purchasing the privately-owned land. This is an idea that many, but not all, professionals believed to be the best option; according to my interview data, 56% of professionals agreed with the purchase (see Figure 43). As a result, the *Jeongokri* plan suggested spending ca. £12m on purchasing the land; this represents ca. 22% of the total budget for the

development of the site (the total being ca. £48m). The sum of £12m is the second largest expenditure in the total budget for the *Jeongokri* management plan, with the remainder comprising: ca. £14m on building the on-site museum; ca. £10m on building the historic park; ca. £5m for amenities in the neighbouring area and ca. £5m for the archaeological excavations (Figure 42).

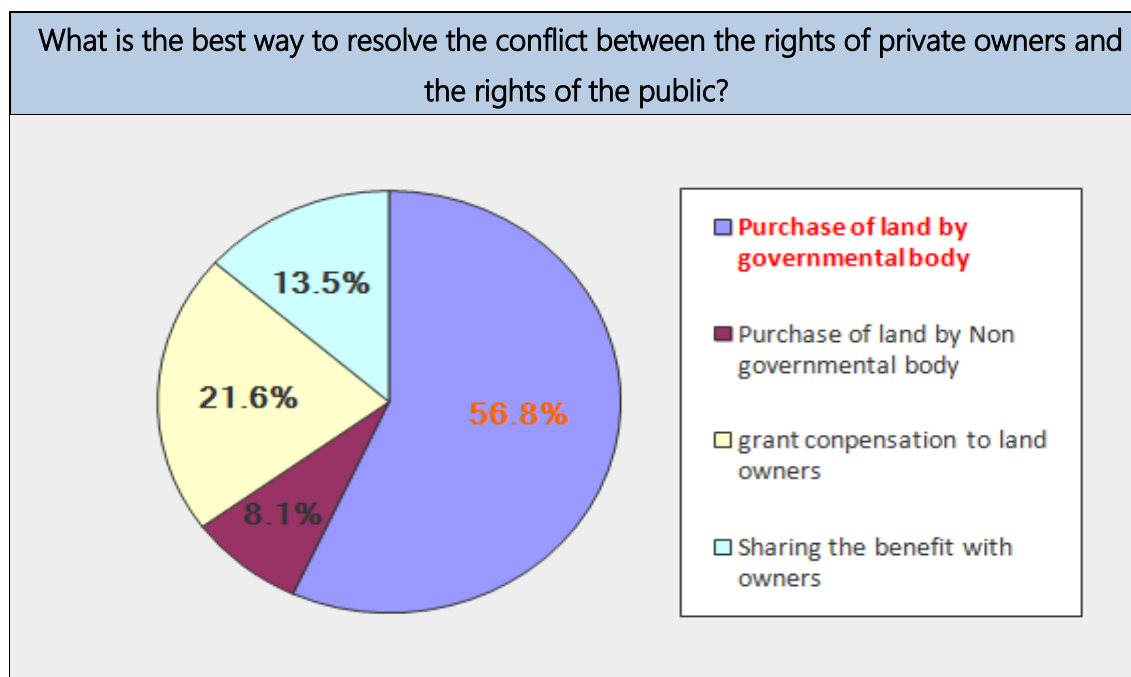


Figure 43: Questionnaire responses regarding the options to resolve the ownership issue.

The expenditure of such a large proportion of the total budget on the purchase of land represented a significant challenge, but - perhaps more importantly - it also meant that the landowners, who were potential stakeholders in *Jeongokri*, were excluded from the management process once the purchase had taken place. Before the purchase they were an important stakeholder, using their position to express their negative opinions in relation to the ownership of the site, ensuring that it was the first challenge addressed in management plan 2003 (alongside damage to the site by plough; ICPHY 2003, 18). Nevertheless, it is fair

to say that the landowners were strongly linked to the site despite their negative views. When ownership moved to the local government, however, the landowners were no longer interested in the site, which was - of course - what the archaeologists and the local government wanted. It also meant, however, that purchasing the land was a way of excluding or reducing certain stakeholders who had complicated or negative interests in the site:

*"... the public complaints are always difficult to handle because they are always different and complicated... the biggest dissatisfaction of the landlords of Jeongokri is that they cannot fully exercise their ownership rights due to the fact that the land is located in the designated area... whenever we do something on the site, it is their land, so they behave in an uncooperative manner; they always begin a conversation with requests for compensation, but we don't have any budget or administrative grounds to give a subsidy or compensation..."*

(From the discussion with interviewee AD5).

Such public complaints by private landlords who have private ownership of an archaeological site are very common, because all their activities on a site are restricted by the law; Article 13 in the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* states that, in the designated area and buffer zone (normally 500m from the boundary), activities that potentially cause any change or transformation to the site have to be examined and permitted by the local or national government, regardless of

ownership. Their dissatisfaction over this restriction is apparently a cause for public complaint. Moreover, this influences other groups of people, who are also potential stakeholders, such as local residents, in the same negative way. For instance, the *Jeongokri* management plan of 2003 suggested that such legal restrictions are regarded by the local public as an obstacle to local economic development (ICPHY 2003, 18). Naturally, a number of local residents were not happy about the legal restrictions. This puts pressure on the local government, which is an important stakeholder in management planning. As a result, some members of the public, in particular stakeholders who hold a negative view, are often deliberately excluded from the planning process.

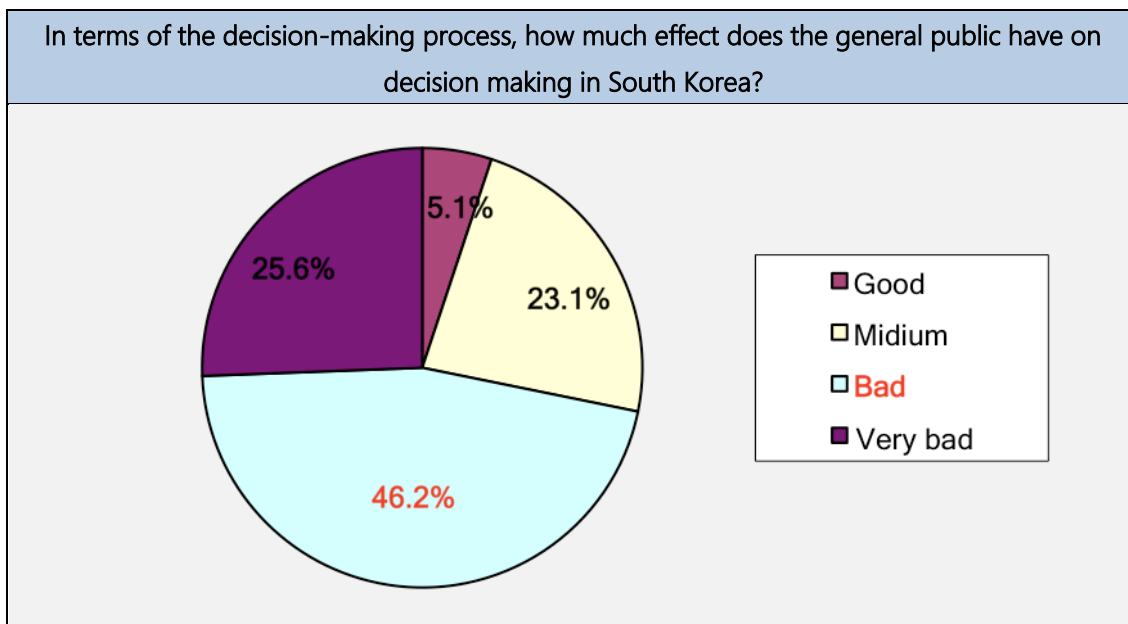


Figure 44: Questionnaire responses regarding public participation in management planning.

The survey of professionals also suggested that the influence of the public in the planning process is weak; approximately 72% of people surveyed believe that it is 'bad' or 'very bad' (Figure 44). This is because of the exclusion of the public in

all its diversity. Although, in a manner of speaking, it might be necessary to keep the negative views of the public apart from the management planning process, the public, in fact, includes many different groups of people who have different voices regarding a site. This is also a reason for excluding the public's opinions in planning, however. For instance, Howard (2003, 104) defined three different stakeholders that relate to the general public: owners, outsiders and insiders. In particular, insiders are those who are 'concerned particularly with activities, with sites and with people; long-settled locals and club members; concerned for access but also exclude outsiders. Often oppose interpretation and pricing. Concerned with person- and event-related histories' (Howard 2003, 104). According to this view, there are potentially many Insiders who are strongly associated with a site, such as local communities, local education organizations, local historic groups, NGOs, etc. These different groups of people potentially have different views on and opinions of an archaeological site. These differing and complicated views are seldom taken into account by the stakeholders responsible for management planning in South Korea; for example, archaeologists, who often lead planning, are not fully capable of gathering and assessing such views, while the government, which initiates the planning process, can feel burdened by them. For instance, the *Jeongokri* management plan of 2003 was supported by the general public, which had a positive view of the site (Chapter 3.1), but this does not mean that the local public were given an opportunity to take part in planning or decision making.

#### 4.3.1.2 *Planning by professionals*

The management planning process in South Korea is an exclusive one, especially where it concerns local people. Most of all, there are few opportunities for other stakeholders to take part in planning, while decisions in planning are led, and made, by professionals. It is widely accepted that archaeology has become more professionalised; for instance, rescue archaeology in South Korea contributes to archaeological research that demands professionally skilled archaeologists (e.g. Chapter 1.4). Nowadays, moreover, interdisciplinary cooperation is required in order to interpret the meaning of archaeological sites. From the point of view of management planning, professional archaeological knowledge is required in order to yield the raw data that ought to generate the values and meaning of a site. Considering the nature of buried archaeological sites, for which excavation is an essential part, it is fair to say that the management of a site should be led by professional archaeologists in part, since they have access to the most relevant information. For this reason, most management plans for buried sites in South Korea have been led by archaeologists (Chapter 4.3.1.1). On the other hand, management planning is also an interdisciplinary task; for instance, as seen in Figure 12, 'management' essentially involves the interpretation and presentation of all values in relation to a site, as well as its physical protection (Chapter 2.1). Consequently, approaches to physical conservation, display and interpretation should be devised in combination. This does not, however, mean that all decisions should be led and made by professionals alone.



It is reasonable that the *Jeongokri* management plan of 2003 was led by the ICPHY, which was the archaeological institute that was most heavily involved in those archaeological projects taking place at the site. The ICPHY holds the largest set of archaeological data related to *Jeongokri*, and has been involved in the organisation of the *Jeongokri Prehistoric Festival* since 1993. In addition, the Institution of Tourism Hanyang University (ITHY) was also selected by the ICPHY as a major part of the planning team allocated to the development of the tourism strategies that were the principal objective of the plan. Another important part of the planning team was an advisory group. According to the planning team structure (Figure 45), there are six professionals from six relevant fields, who were also selected by the ICPHY, depending on the specific aims and purpose of the plan: conservation, the museum, the historic park, restoration of the natural environment, city planning and the festival. In the meantime, there are two important parts of the planning process that are not illustrated in Figure 45: the general advisory group and the local government. The general advisory group consisted of 8 senior scholars in archaeology, who gave general advice (ICPHY 2003, 23), and Yeoncheon, the local government, which was responsible for the budget (although this is not mentioned in Figure 45). Every part of the planning team played a different role in developing the plan, and the plan was led by the ICPHY.

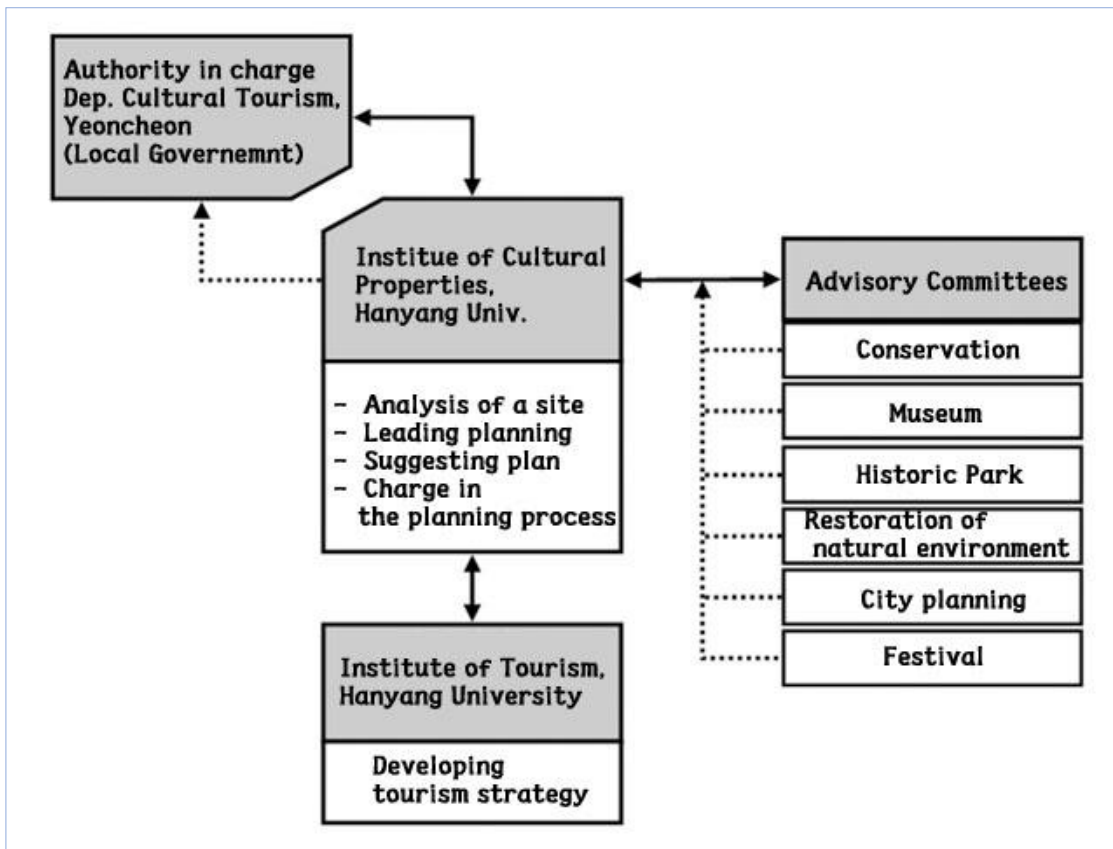


Figure 45: The planning team for the *Jeongokri* management plan 2003 (ICPHY 2003, 21).

At a glance, it seems to be a fair system for dealing with diverse issues in planning, but the challenge here is that there was no opportunity for non-professionals (typically local people) to take part. As seen in the discussion in the previous section (see chapter 4.3.1.1), public opinions are complicated and difficult to deal with, and time and budgets are often limited – the *Jeongokri* management plan was formed in just six months. Nevertheless, the importance of the public is already addressed by Korean professionals (Figure 46), who often regard the public, especially the local public, as the most important stakeholder in management planning. In practice, there is no substantive way of involving the local public in planning. All decisions are made by professionals under the power of the government (Figure 46), with only an awareness of importance of the

locals. In the *Jeongokri* management plan of 2003, opportunities in the planning process for hearing the public's voice were altogether lacking.

#### 4.3.1.3 *Planning by the governmental power*

Since the early days of the field of Archaeological Resource Management, the administrative framework, especially the governmental power authorized by the legal system, has played an important role in the general management of archaeological resources. Since the enactment of the first law, the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*, in South Korea, the national government has also played a significant role management of these resources. This *Act* and its enforcement have provided the standard for decision making on all matters of heritage, with the Cultural Heritage Administration (CHA) wielding the power related to the management. For instance, all management plans, whether conducted by the local government or by any other organisation, have to be approved by CHA before they can be carried out. This seems rational, because archaeological resources are public property – as will be explored in the next chapter – and the government, as public power representing or deputizing for public opinion, makes decisions because, theoretically, it acts on behalf of the public. In reality, this is unlikely to be the case in South Korea; it can be said that the decisions tend to be made or approved out of administrative opportunism.

At the first glance, administrative management in South Korea appears to involve, top-down decision making. In principle, the Cultural Heritage

Administration should, in the last instance, approve all decisions related to an archaeological resource, whether that resource is designated or undesignated, tangible or intangible, natural or cultural, in order for these decisions to be enacted in the field. The planning team of the local government completes the management plan and a group of professionals is approved via an administrative system, which is a designated national governmental organization. When the CHA makes a decision, the Cultural Heritage Committee plays an important role as an advisory group. The Committee consists of approximately 80 professionals or scholars in relevant fields, each of whom belongs to one of 8 subcommittees. The management plan is considered in relevant subcommittees, usually the Historic Site or Buried Heritage committee, and these committees provide advice to the CHA for approval. The issue here is that there is little opportunity to consider local specific issues. As seen in the previous section, there is no opportunity to accommodate local interests in the planning, or in this process.

This linear decision-making process in South Korea might be seen as a bottom-up planning process: prepared by the local government and then approved by the national government. In fact, however, by the time the plan has been prepared at the local level, it has already been indirectly influenced by the national government. All planning teams have an advisory group as an important constituent of the team. Conventionally, some members of the advisory group are from the Cultural Heritage Committee of the CHA. Seemingly, this can help to save time, since members of the Cultural Heritage Committee of the CHA are

already familiar with the plan. In other words, the plan is subject to influence. For the local government and the planning team, approval by the CHA is important because the considerable portion of budget to conduct work at the site comes from the national government. For instance, about 61% of the total budget to carry out the *Jeongokri* plan was to be provided by the national government and the provincial government. The local government was to provide about 20%, and the remaining 20% was to be covered by private capital (Yeoncheongun report 2003). Consequently, the local government and the planning team place more attention on the powerful decision makers of this linear decision-making process than on the interests or issues at the local level.

This decision-making process may not be entirely top-down. The national government's influence is limited to budgetary issues. However, professionals who have been involved in management planning recognise that the national government is the most powerful decision maker (see Figure 46). Inevitably, planners treat the national governmental context as a priority.

In South Korea today, how much influence do the following groups have on decision-making in the management of cultural heritage?										
Answer Options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Rating Average	Response Count
	Strong ----- Week									
National Government	71.79% 28	15.38% 6	10.26% 4	2.56% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	7.56	39
Local government	5.13% 2	30.77% 12	17.95% 7	20.51% 8	10.26% 4	7.69% 3	7.69% 3	0.00% 0	5.46	39
Political Policy	5.13% 2	15.38% 6	15.38% 6	17.95% 7	17.95% 7	15.38% 6	2.56% 1	10.26% 4	4.64	39
Developer	10.26% 4	15.38% 6	15.38% 6	15.38% 6	10.26% 4	12.82% 5	15.38% 6	5.13% 2	4.74	39
Tourism	0.00% 0	2.56% 1	2.56% 1	12.82% 5	25.64% 10	17.95% 7	15.38% 6	23.08% 9	3.08	39
Academics	2.56% 1	15.38% 6	23.08% 9	7.69% 3	10.26% 4	23.08% 9	12.82% 5	5.13% 2	4.46	39

	1	6	9	3	4	9	5	2		
Non-Governmental Organisations	2.56%	2.56%	5.13%	10.26%	12.82%	17.95%	30.77%	17.95%	3.05	39
	1	1	2	4	5	7	12	7		
Local people	2.56%	2.56%	10.26%	12.82%	12.82%	5.13%	15.38%	38.46%	3	39
	1	1	4	5	5	2	6	15		
Answered question										39
Skipped question										0

Figure 46: Questionnaire responses regarding decision-making powers.

#### 4.3.1.4 Conclusion

To sum up the current South Korean approaches:

- 1) Deliberately exclude possible stakeholders (the public) such as landlords by purchasing land
- 2) Empower groups of professionals by exclusive planning
- 3) Enact top-down decision-making by empowering professionals & the government

Unlike these approaches, recent international trends in Archaeological Resource Management (Chapter 2.2) emphasize the participation of a wide range of people and organizations, or 'stakeholders' in management planning. Seen in Chapter 2.2.1, for example, the stakeholders who have decision-making power have been widened: from administrative power in the early period, to the public in recent years (e.g. Figure 16). The important stakeholders have changed from groups of professionals to the public – this is the 'participatory' management planning which has been strongly emphasized in the recent approach of Archaeological Resource Management, but, in South Korea, rather it tends to decrease the range of decision-makers in the planning for the

administrative convenience. Consequently, this exclusion is likely to empower professionals in management planning. Although it is impossible that all stakeholders take part in planning, the public should not deliberately be excluded for participatory management planning.

#### 4.3.2 Managed for whom?

The issue of 'for whom' is not separate from that of 'by whom'. In a broad sense, the reason causes the issues and challenges related to 'for whom' is that the decision making process in the management plan does not equally reflect the interests of all stakeholders and it does not necessarily need to be done; it is obviously an issue related to the 'by whom'. At first glance, the 'for whom' issue can mean 'who can benefit from the management plan?' Ideally, the answer to this would be 'everyone' which can be called 'public benefit'. The issue is more complicated, however.

##### 4.3.2.1 *Exclusion of the local public*

The recent transformation in South Korea, to the notion of archaeological sites as a social resources for public benefit – for example, to promote local economies – rather than simply as something to be protected, (see Chapter 1.1), has often been emphasised in recent management plans in South Korea. The *Jeongokri* plan 2003, for example, included the objective of developing the site as a historic theme park precisely for such economic reasons. At first glance, this seems to be logical. The issue here, however, is that this development plan was not put to the

local people; it is therefore unclear whether this is something that is desired and supported by the local people. For instance, in the *Jeongokri* management plan 2003, there was no public hearing before, during or after the plan's imposition.

*Jeongokri* is no exception to the precept that most buried archaeological sites inevitably require archaeological excavation. Since the 1990s, a number of excavations have been conducted through rescue archaeology. All of these involve critical decision-making, especially after excavation. In principle, it is recommended that the excavated sites be preserved by means of one of three options: *in-situ*, removal, or recording. In many cases, the interests of archaeologists conflict with those of the developers when it comes to decision making. When this occurs, both sides also refer to the interests of the public.

*Sosadong*, for instance, was partly preserved *in-situ* as a result of the negotiations between developers and archaeologists. According to the personal experience of one of the excavators at the site, both developers and archaeologists insisted that they were acting 'for the people': the developers argued that *in-situ* preservation would infringe upon the economic benefits of the development, due to the increase in the development costs; the archaeologists stated that the site should be preserved due to its historic significance.

*"... as much area as being protected by the in-situ, the number of houses we can build will decrease, and the construction costs will rise. Basically it*



*will be charged to the future residents. In other words, all damage by the excavation will be taken by the future residents... it is not our fault. It is the archaeologists' fault, who do not understand the reality... I think they infringe future residents' right..."*

(From the Author's notes of a conversation with one of the developers working at *Sosadong* during the excavation)

*"... considering the archaeological significance of the (Sosadong) site, it deserves to be protected in-situ. No one has the right to destroy the site, because it belongs to all Koreans... we already yielded a part of the site to you (the developers)..."*

(An archaeologist from the *Sosadong* excavation)

Such conflicts are typical in rescue excavations. It seems that both the developers and the archaeologists emphasise the interests of and benefits to the public, but - despite this - there is no opportunity for the public to express their opinions directly. In *Sosadong*, there are about 2,300 residents in 700 houses; most of these residents purchased their properties before the completion of construction. This means that there are at least 2,300 possible stakeholders in *Sosadong*. The decision-making process is, however, not open to these stakeholders. Mostly, they have a negative view of the site and the excavation, and their interests collide with those of both the archaeologists and the developers, but coincides with neither. The residents might think more about

issues such as how their quality of life might be improved by the public park, as well as the cost issue, which is a major interest of the developers. In the current decision-making process, there is no stakeholder in place to represent the public appropriately. This is not just a feature of the *Sosadong* case; it happens in most of the rescue excavations in South Korea.

#### 4.3.2.2 *For the professionals*

In the field of Archaeology and Archaeological Resource Management, operations have been substantially professionalised. In particular, since the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century when archaeological research and studies increased, so has the momentum behind professionalization. In the case of buried archaeological sites, it is fair to say that archaeologists have played a more important role in managing them, inevitably because decisions regarding their management rely heavily on the work and opinions of archaeologists. Archaeological excavation is an essential part of archaeological research and it is important that it is carried out by qualified professionals because it requires particular skills. In addition, due to the nature of buried sites, which are non-renewable, invisible and decay after excavation, archaeologists' opinions have played a very influential role in decision making, not only with regard to the excavation itself, but also to site management after excavation. On the one hand, the management plan is a professional undertaking, so it is only fair that professionals who have the relevant professional skills and knowledge should carry out such plans; on the other hand, the plan should take into account the

interests of the various stakeholders. The issue can be caused from the latter. In a broad sense, it results from the less participatory management plan (see Chapter 4.3.1.1); in particular, it parallels the context of Chapter 4.3.1.2, in which the management plan is carried out by professionals.

Interestingly, many South Korean professionals are aware of the importance of the public from an intellectual point of view, for instance, the local public (see Figure 47), but in management in South Korea, emphasis is still placed on the interests of professional academics. For instance, although *Jeongokri* is an example of a site whose protection is motivated by the awareness of the general public, it is difficult to argue that the management plan was conducted through a participatory process that reflected their local interests. Awareness of the significance and importance of the site was triggered by the *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival, which, since 1993, has been organized by ICPHY as an on-site archaeological event for the public. The number of visitors to the event has continuously increased, reaching 900,000 in 2009 according to the Festival website. In 2000, the local government finally became aware of the significance of the site and began to support the Festival. The Festival is one of the best examples of the use of archaeological sites for the benefit of the public (Bae, Ki-Dong 2009, 2-6). The *Jeongokri Prehistoric Site Management Plan* was instigated in 2003 on the basis of the support of the public and local governmental bodies (ICPHY 2003 and Chapter 3.1).

From an ideal point view, of the following groups, who should be influential in decision-making in South Korea?										
Answer Options	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Rating Average	Response Count
	Strong ----- Week									
National Government	17.95%	15.38%	12.82%	25.64%	12.82%	12.82%	2.56%	0.00%	5.51	39
	7	6	5	10	5	5	1	0		
Local government	2.56%	17.95%	25.64%	20.51%	23.08%	2.56%	7.69%	0.00%	5.18	39
	1	7	10	8	9	1	3	0		
Political Policy	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	5.13%	15.38%	25.64%	10.26%	43.59%	2.28	39
	0	0	0	2	6	10	4	17		
Developer	2.56%	2.56%	2.56%	7.69%	5.13%	15.38%	41.03%	23.08%	2.64	39
	1	1	1	3	2	6	16	9		
Tourism	2.56%	2.56%	5.13%	0.00%	15.38%	25.64%	25.64%	23.08%	2.82	39
	1	1	2	0	6	10	10	9		
Academics	20.51%	25.64%	25.64%	15.38%	7.69%	2.56%	0.00%	2.56%	6.15	39
	8	10	10	6	3	1	0	1		
Non-Governmental Organisations	7.69%	5.13%	23.08%	17.95%	15.38%	12.82%	12.82%	5.13%	4.56	39
	3	2	9	7	6	5	5	2		
Local people	46.15%	30.77%	5.13%	7.69%	5.13%	2.56%	0.00%	2.56%	6.85	39
	18	12	2	3	2	1	0	1		
Answered question										39
Skipped question										0

Figure 47: Questionnaire responses regarding the important stakeholders for planning.

In spite of the public support for *Jeongokri*, there was little opportunity for local people to get involved in the management plan, since - as described in the previous chapter - this plan was led by academics. This academic interest is not in the 2003 plan, because 18 archaeological excavations were carried since the discovery of the site (see Figure 23), including the 11<sup>st</sup> excavation at the site, which was a key investigation for the 2003 plan. The process and results of the investigation, however, were not fully opened up to the public. The local government and archaeologists still state that '*Jeongokri*' is the oldest, the largest, the most valuable, and the most important and significant site in South

Korea' for the public. It is a reason for prioritizing the site than the public's interest.

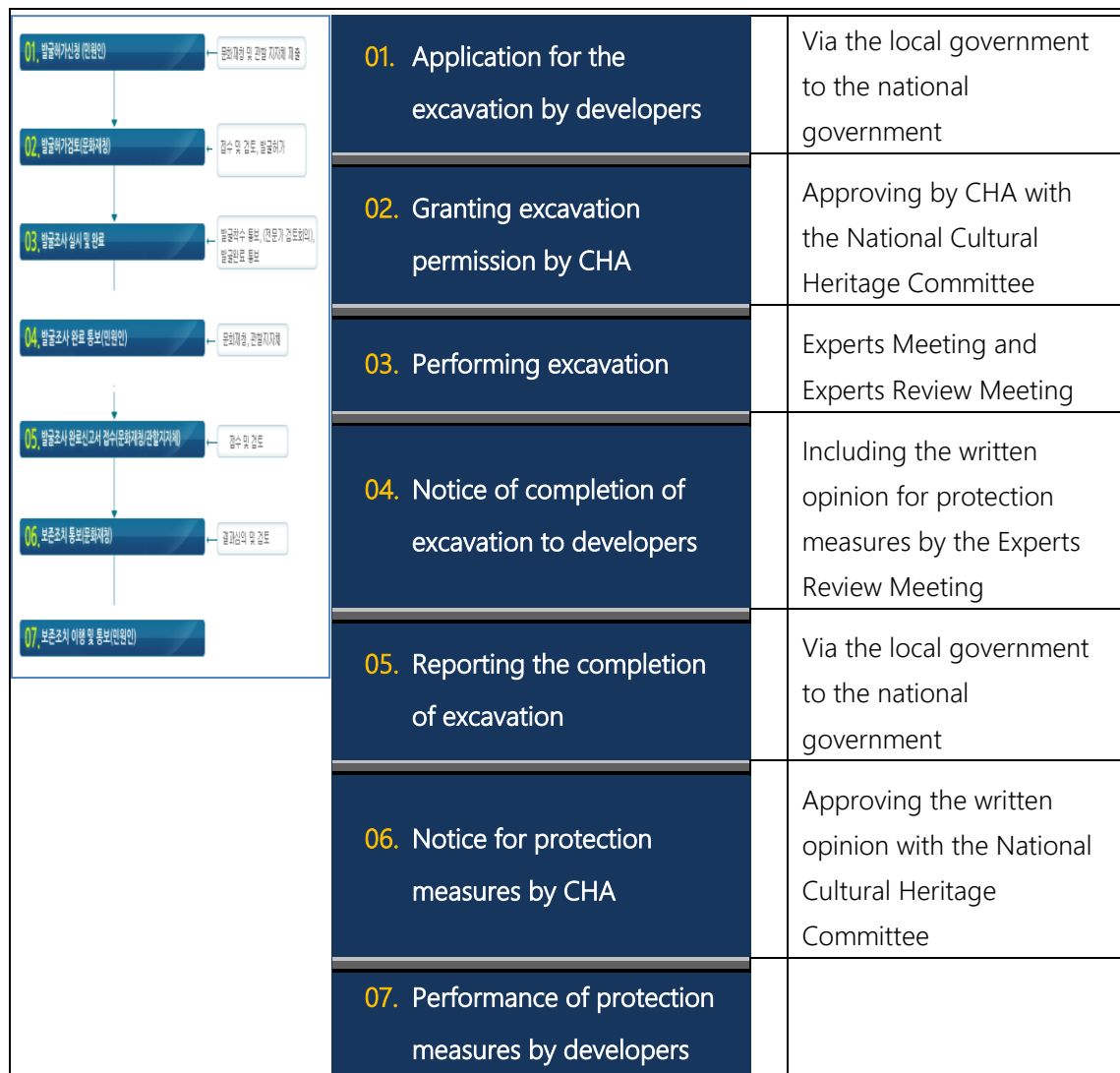


Figure 48: The general process of decision making for archaeological excavations.

During an archaeological excavation, the professionals, usually archaeologists, are the most powerful stakeholder with regards to the decision-making process, with little opportunity to bring the interests of the public to bear. Since the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, conflicts within rescue archaeology have been a critical social issue in South Korea. In order to deal with these conflicts, a new law, the *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, was introduced.

Figure 48 shows the procedures for rescue excavation and the relevant stakeholders involved in decision-making. According to this law, the excavation team leads the excavation through the Expert Meeting, which consists of the members of the excavation team and advisory archaeologists. The law also states that the Expert Review Meeting, which makes proposals regarding protection measure(s) after an excavation, should be composed of professional archaeologists, members of the excavation team, and at least one member of the National Cultural Heritage Committee. In the Reviewing Meeting, it can be said that all decisions are made in the form of advice for the Administration of Cultural Heritage, as well as the academic advice for the excavation. In particular, this advice includes time and scale of the excavation and excavation manner; with the details inevitably related to the cost of the excavation. Moreover, the law strongly recommends selecting the method for the protection of the site post-excavation, from among the following options: recording, removal and *in-situ*. In the case of removal or *in-situ*, the extent of the site is also considered during the meeting. Although developers can make their own protection proposal in opposition to that of the Experts Reviewing Meeting, the National Cultural Heritage Committee will always select the latter. This is because the National Cultural Heritage Committee is already involved in the Experts Reviewing Meeting; 'at least one member of the National Cultural Heritage Committee should be involved in the Experts Reviewing Meeting'. Subsequently, developers are legally responsible for enacting the decisions that are validated. This means

that most decisions tend to rely heavily on the academic power of the Expert Review Meeting.

#### 4.3.2.3 *Administrative management tool*

Simply put, if professionals and governmental bodies fully understand, and are concerned with, the interests of the public in management planning and decision making, the 'for whom' issues may not be a matter of major concern. This is the case for either management planning or rescue archaeology. In South Korean practice, however, the most important matters in terms of management are: first the granting of permission and, second, the budget to implement the plan (see Chapter 4.3.1.3). As a result plans in South Korea are characterised by the administrative management plan. According to the interview data (see Figure 49), more than 50% of professionals who have been involved in planning recognise that these plans are primarily of the administrative management type. It may be fair to say that the governmental body has some level of involvement, and that the local government, in particular, is involved in the management plan as an important stakeholder, since they are responsible for the management of archaeological resources, legally and even financially (most management plans have been conducted using governmental budgets).

The issue is that the government sets out the vision, aim and purpose of management plans on the basis of administrative convenience, rather than through a sophisticated analysis of condition and values of the site. The

*Jeongokri* management plan, for instance, was first conducted in 2002 by Min-ga, which is a private architectural company (with the plan not subsequently published). This first plan was organised by professionals, including archaeologists and a government agency. In the end, it was discarded because the plan was not feasible; it focused entirely on the development of the site from an economic perspective, as set out by the local government before the planning process began in earnest. As a result, the first plan included strategies that were not fit for purpose in terms of meeting the requirements of the local government; for instance, the infrastructure to develop the park, including a museum and a visitor centre, was planned for the central area of the site. This would inevitably have caused serious damage and destruction to the site, and - as a consequence - permission for such an undertaking was not granted by the Administration of Cultural Heritage. Moreover, the budget for the first plan was not granted. Thus, a second plan was conducted by the ICPHY, the most experienced institution related the site, who had acted as a contributor to supplements to the first plan.

Archaeological excavations, like management plans, are likely to be of an administrative character. As Figure 47 shows, national governmental bodies are closely involved as the primary decision-makers in this process. This is a reasonable state of affairs, providing that the government's exertion of control is rational. The government, however, is not really concerned with the decision, but rather with passing the process. For instance, in an interview response that



stemmed from the question about decision-making powers (see Figure 46), field archaeologists complained about the responsibility of selection of protection manner.

*"... as you know, according to the regulation, the CHA wants us (the excavation team) to choose the manner of protection. In principle, it is an advisory proposal, but it goes through the committee (the Cultural Heritage Committee of the CHA) without change. Then they say that it is the view of the professionals whenever complaints come up. However, the bottom line is that they do not want to take responsibility for the decision. Some developers have already recognised this, so they attempt to negotiate everything with us. For instance, in Sosadong, the part of site that was to be preserved in-situ was not decided by us. I felt that the CHA did not mind which part was to be protected in-situ. They just wanted to protect some part because archaeologists insisted that the site was important. As an archaeologist, I did my best to make a good decision. To be honest, I am not absolutely sure that the final decision was the best."*  
(From a statement by a member of the *Sosadong* excavation team).

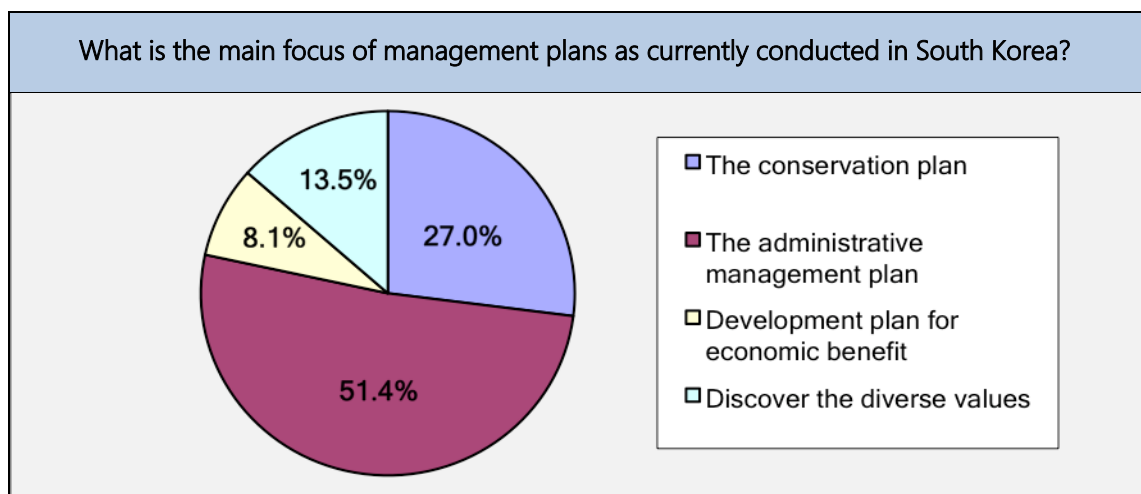


Figure 49: Questionnaire responses regarding the purpose of current South Korean management plans.

#### 4.3.2.4 *Conclusion*

To sum up: the issues and challenges regarding 'For Whom' in South Korea are:

- 1) A decision-making process with regards to archaeological excavations that provide few opportunities from which the public benefit, especially for those who have negative views of the sites.
- 2) An imbalance between professional's theoretical and empirical understanding of the public's potential benefit from these sites.
- 3) The imposition of a management plan as an administrative management tool regardless of public's interest

With regard to this issue, interestingly, and perhaps not surprisingly, it is notable that only a very small number of those South Korean professionals who have been involved in management plans believe that local people should be the most important stakeholders (see Figure 47) rather than the national government (see Figure 46). This illustrates both the theory and the empirical reality of the management of archaeological resources in South Korea; although even empirically all of those individuals related to a site do not carry an equal weight in their relationship(s). For this reason, international approaches have encountered a paradigm shift that emphasizes the role of local people who associated with archaeological sites: for instance, the 'for whom' issues has been extended from 'for resources and limited people' to 'for the public' (Chapter

2.2.2.1 and 2.2.2.2). In addition, according to the most recent trends, the public use of archaeological sites has been brought to the fore as in management plans (Chapter 2.2.2.3).

Topic	Who	
Issues	By whom?	For whom?
Transformation of Perceptible issues	Administrative power & professionals ↓ Institutional & the public	Limited people ↓ General public
Challenges in South Korean approaches	Deliberate exclusion of possible stakeholders such as landlords by purchasing land Empowering groups of professionals by exclusive planning Top-down decision-making by empowering professionals & the government	Unbalanced professionals' understanding about the public' benefit between real and idea A management plan for an administrative management tool regardless of public's interest No opportunities which the public insist benefit in decision-making for archaeological excavations, especially for the people who have negative views to sites

Figure 50: Challenges related to 'Who' in South Korean approaches

The context of South Korean practice amid international trends is thus: the South Korean approach seem to partly follow on from international trends; recognizing the public as important stakeholders and beneficiaries (e.g. Figure 46); but it retains those empirical challenges already outlined above. From an intellectual point of view, these challenges stem less from participatory management planning on the ground, although the public should obviously be involved in this process. This imbalance - instead - is a challenge which necessitates a holistic management planning model.

## 4.4 The Subject: 'Why?' – Ownership and identity

### 4.4.1 The Ownership issue

#### 4.4.1.1 *Predetermined vision, aim and purpose*

With South Korea's first legal framework provided by the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* in 1962, some fundamental ideas concerning archaeological resources were established, such as the definition of cultural property as 'a thing that has national or international value, which is artificially or naturally formed or created' (Article 1 of the Act). Statutory protection was given to resources that fall within this definition, and a designation system for archaeological resources was initiated. The enactment took as its point of departure the view that all remains from the past belong to the Korean people as common or public property. At its time of writing, however, archaeological resources were not a matter of particular concern in South Korean society.

It can be said that ownership has become a critical topic in South Korea since the development of rescue archaeology in the 1990s. The conflict between private and public property in rescue excavations became an important issue; as seen in Figure 51, many professionals agreed that the conflict over ownership was both motivated by and boosted by the increase in rescue archaeology. From a fundamental perspective, however, this gap may have emerged out of the disparity between real ownership and intellectual ownership. The *Cultural*

*Heritage Protection Act 1962* reflected on and included the ideal notion of ownership, such as the notion that all remains from the past belong to all human beings (see Chapter 2.2). This principle was subsequently applied to the *Act*, as well as to regulations for all kinds of cultural resources; however, as we should all recognize, it is not a realistic one. Nevertheless, the public awareness meant that ownership did not emerge in South Korea as major issue until the 1980s. Thus, as seen in Figure 51, the broad motivation behind the heightened interest in archaeological resources was increased public interest, which was itself a consequence of improvements in the quality of life. This was the moment intellectual ownership of archaeological resources in South Korea was formed.

However, the rapidly increased interest in archaeological resources also caused a conflict between intellectual and practical ownership. As a result, the terms 'cultural heritage' and 'archaeological site' have often had a negative meaning for the public in South Korea, being viewed as an obstacle to the rights of private owners. In order to resolve these conflicts, the government and professionals have made land purchases in order to bring land under their ownership (Figure 43); but this too has caused problems, namely, the exclusion of certain stakeholders, as mentioned in Chapter 4.3.1.1. Another issue here is the centrality of land purchases as a key aim of the most powerful stakeholders - the government and academics - at the beginning of the process of putting a management plan together. Although it is important that the budget established as a part of a management plan is feasible, often the plan illustrates the

significance of the budget from a bureaucratic perspective (see Chapter 4.3.1 and Chapter 4.3.2). The vision, aim and purpose of a management plan, however, should be set up on the basis of the condition and circumstances of the site. For this, the information related to the site should be collected, analysed, and assessed in a thoughtful way. It can be said this 'documentation' stage is currently missing in planning processes in South Korea.

With respect to documentation, which is the process of gathering relevant information, the revision of *Enforcement Decree of the Protection of Cultural Properties Act* in 1999 may be a good point of departure: any kind of construction work of more than 30,000 m<sup>2</sup> has to include archaeological investigation, and the costs of this investigation must be met by the developers (Article 13 and 43 in the *Act* and Article 4 in its enforcement ordinance). This legislation the legal framework for gathering information related to buried archaeological sites, information that is subsequently used in the decision-making process, but it also causes serious conflicts regarding the issue of ownership. In most rescue excavations for private development projects, for instance, the developers have already purchased the land, and they - consequently - believe that everything within it belongs to them on the basis of the right of private ownership. Consequently, they believe that they are should either make or, at least, be heavily involved in, all relevant decisions. According to the Act of 1962, however, even where land is under private ownership, any archaeological resources within it remain under public ownership. The *Sosadong*

case illustrates this point clearly. Despite the archaeological value and significance of the site, most of it was preserved by recording the findings, rather than *in-situ*. This was because of economic issues, namely, the cost of excavation versus conservation. Developers spent approximately £150,000 on the excavation over two years (KIOH 2004). Despite this outlay of time and money, the developers lost the land that was meant to be used for residential buildings:

*'... to be honest, the cost of the excavation could be affordable, and it is our (the developers') legal responsibility. The problems are time and land. We have not carried out construction according to our plan because of the excavation. So we are also financially damaged. A more serious problem is that if we lose land for buildings because of preservation, we will incur heavier damage. The whole construction plan should be changed, and we have to spend time and money to make this change. It is not affordable for us. I don't understand why we cannot build buildings on our land. We bought the land for the project...'* (A developer's remark on the negotiation meeting between the archaeologists and the developers for *Sosadong*. From the author's personal memorandum).

Nevertheless, the *Sosadong* case provides an excellent example of the manner in which the predetermined aim and purpose of land development can be overcome through long negotiations and compromise. Both archaeologists and developers generally suppose that once a rescue excavation is underway an excavated site will be protected by recording or, very rarely, removal or *in-situ*

(see Figure 5 and Figure 6). Practical problems, such as conflicts over ownership, the budget for protecting the site, and the responsibility of follow-up management, remain outside their remit. This may be due to the absence of sophisticated development guidelines for archaeological resources; it is too complicated and too difficult to be dealt with in the South Korean legal framework. Consequently, sites excavated through rescue excavations have a 'development friendly aim and purpose – protection by recording after the excavation – meaning that the excavated site is physically destroyed and continues to exist only in the form of an excavation report, once fieldwork has taken place,' – even at the beginning of the excavation, with this perspective a tacit agreement between stakeholders.

What do you think were the main reasons behind this increase in awareness?							
Answer Options	1	2	3	4	N/A	Rating Average	Response Count
	Strong ----- Week						
Enactment or revision of legal framework (e.g. Cultural Heritage Protection Act)	21.62%	13.51%	13.51%	37.84%	13.51%	2.78	37
	8	5	5	14	5		
Improvement in quality of life as a result of economic development	37.84%	21.62%	24.32%	13.51%	2.70%	2.14	37
	14	8	9	5	1		
Conflicts between development and protection of cultural heritage	30.56%	30.56%	30.56%	8.33%	0.00%	2.17	36
	11	11	11	3	0		
Increase of interest in of Korean identity	18.92%	32.43%	21.62%	21.62%	5.41%	2.49	37
	7	12	8	8	2		
Other (e.g. political purpose)	4						4
Answered question							37
Skipped question							2

Figure 51: Questionnaire responses regarding the reasons for the increased interest in archaeological resources.



To sum up, the aim and purpose, and even the final decision regarding an excavation, are already established in advance, before stakeholders are in possession of any relevant information about the site.

#### 4.4.1.2 *Conclusion*

To conclude the current management planning approaches in South Korea, the immediate challenge related to issues of 'ownership' is the conflict between private ownership and public ownership. The fundamental reason for this challenge likely exists in parallel with the issues of 'Who' (Chapter 4.3) in a broad sense, however it also results from the predetermined vision, aims and purpose in management planning. The ownership issue has been an important topic in the field of Archaeological Resource Management. As Chapter 2.3.1 makes clear, the focus has moved to intellectual ownership, which regards archaeological resources as a public or common property in a society (Chapter 2.3.1.2), regardless of the physical ownership. The intension behind such a change lies in resolving the ownership issue, which has posed the greatest challenge to the protection of archaeological resources.

The rapid increase in interest in archaeological resources in South Korea has similarly transformed the ownership issue, however there is still a gap between the theory and the practice. By placing land purchase at the fore, as a predetermined aim, management plans aim to resolve this ownership issue, However, this is not the idea approach to the issues and challenges relating to the ownership and 'Who' issue in a broad sense. Rather, it creates more issues

such as the exclusion of stakeholders. Moreover, these issues are most serious in rescue archaeology, where there are conflicts of interest between physical ownerships and intellectual ownership.

#### 4.4.2 Identity issue

##### 4.4.2.1 *The generic vision, aim and purpose*

In the 20<sup>th</sup> century, South Korean archaeological resources underwent dynamic changes. The Korean archaeologist, Kim Young-Han (2010, 8-10), argued that during the Japanese colonial era (1910-1945) Korean cultural heritage was deliberately destroyed by the Japanese colonial government. Korean cultural heritage suffered again in the early 1950s, during the Korean War (1950-1953), and a number of the resources were damaged or destroyed. The 1960s and 1970s saw attempts to recover Korean identity, including the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*. As Figure 51 shows, the interest of Koreans in archaeological resources has increased with improvements in quality of life that has come about as a result of economic development from the 1980s onwards.

In modern history, archaeological resources in South Korea have played an important role in recovering Korean identity since the establishment of the legal framework in the 1960s. Archaeological resources, however, were not a 'crucial element of the recovery' (Stanley-Price 2007, 1) in early times. This is because the first priority, up until the 1970s, was the immediate human need for shelter and food. Since the 1980s, the interest of South Koreans in archaeological resources

has increased with improvements in quality of life resulting from economic development (see Figure 51). In terms of the recovery and formation of Korean identity, however, it is hard to say whether the significance of archaeological resources has been fully understood. This is because archaeological resources are regarded merely as a tool or a piece of equipment with which to easily, rapidly or even sometimes artificially, shape identity by some politicians and even academics. The legal framework, in fact, played role to form the Korean identity using a top-down approach. As a consequence, the South Korean legal framework for the preservation of archaeological resources has adopted a 'focused heritage protection scheme', placing an emphasis on 'designated' cultural resources. This can be seen as an effective way to protect heritage with a limited budget (Han, Na-Rae 2004, 97-98), and it might have been sufficient in the 1960s and 1970s. However, it means that undesignated resources tend to be ignored by experts and the general public alike.

Since the 1980s, the interest of South Koreans in archaeological resources has increased in line with improvements in their quality of life. Despite changes in ideas regarding the role of archaeological resources in South Korea, management plans have still been confused in terms of the goals that they have set. As many professionals have noted, a management plan should state a clear, concrete and feasible vision, aim and purpose as their essential framework. Although the definitions of these terms might be different depending on the professionals, the vision should be the most comprehensive goal, embracing

both the aims and then the purpose in turn. Identity should be included in the vision of a management plan. Unfortunately, however, although a very broad understanding of the relationship between archaeological resources and identity in South Korea has been formed, a definitive conception of the terminology, which is logically interlinked, has not yet been made. For instance, the *Jeongokri* management plan 2003 included 5 main aims, 3 purposes and 5 main approaches for the aims and purposes (Figure 52, translated by author).

Aims	Purpose	Approaches
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* To protect the significance of the site</li> <li>* To use the site as an important resource for social and cultural education</li> <li>* To develop a plan for the local economy</li> <li>* To develop a programmatic action plan based on a comprehensive plan</li> <li>* To develop a strategy for cooperation between the local and national governments</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* To establish a permanent protection countermeasure</li> <li>* To develop a strategy for using the site for local economic development</li> <li>* To use the site for the enhancement of local identity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* Radical strategy for the protection and use of the site</li> <li>* Building an onsite museum</li> <li>* Suggesting a development plan for the site and the surrounding area</li> <li>* Developing cultural education &amp; leisure programmes and for the development plan</li> <li>* Developing a strategy for a cultural tourism base on the site</li> <li>* Developing a strategy for promoting the festival with the local identity</li> <li>* Developing a long-term plan for the region as a cultural tourism city</li> </ul>

Figure 52: Aims, purpose and approaches in the *Jeongokri* management plan 2003.

There is no specific vision in the plan. The widest goal of the plan, 'to protect the significance of the site' in the aim and 'to use the site for the enhancement of local identity' in the purpose, could, however, be regarded as encompassing the vision of the plan on the basis of the scale of these ideas. Nevertheless, if they

are regarded as the vision of the plan, the problem becomes one of the vision being too generic. As a result, all of the visions, aims and purposes are confused and ambiguous.

These generic and ambiguous aims and purposes are also shown in the archaeological excavation. For any kind of archaeological excavation, permission has to be obtained from the CHA. The process of obtaining permission is the responsibility of those who 'wish' to conduct the excavations - in terms of those who bear the excavation costs, such as the developers. However, the people who draw up and fill out the form are the archaeologists who will take part in the excavations. The form includes the aim and purpose of the investigation as an essential element. The following sets out the aims and purpose of the *Sosadong* excavation, as given on the application form:

### **Section 1.2. The aim and purpose of the excavation**

*The excavation aims to gather archaeological data in the area for the Sosadong Residential Area Development Project. At the same time, it aims to protect archaeological remains from damage caused by the development project, and to build up the protection measures.* (From the allocation form for the *Sosadong* excavation by the Korea Institute of Heritage (KIOH), translated by the author)

As seen in this text, the aims and purpose are overly simple. In other words, they are both very generic and too ambiguous. The last sentence about 'building up the protection measures' is the order of tacit agreement mentioned in the

previous part; usually, it means protection by recording; the rest of the sentence is just formal language without real meaning. This might be because the project was a rescue excavation, with few possible options post-excavation. However, academic excavations follow a similar framework; incorporating simple and generic sentences, such as 'aim to obtain basic data for academic research and to develop protection measures' - in a manner that is broadly comparable to the previously stated example.

#### 4.4.2.2 *Conclusion*

To conclude, the challenges in the issues of identity in South Korea are related to generic goals of management plans, such as the ambiguous renderings of the vision, aim and purposes of management planning. The goals of the management plan should be set up on the basis of an understanding of archaeological sites. With regard to identity, these goals should be set within their site-specific context, because it is widely accepted that archaeological resources can represent the identity of certain groups of people, societies and countries (Chapter 2.3.2.1). Moreover, the resources can contribute to the (re)formation and (re)creation of identity, which is an important role of these resources in modern history in South Korea. Sommer (2009, 104) suggested four models of identity formation: an essentialist paradigm model; a simplified functionalist top-down model; a three-step model; and Latour's *For Horizons* model (Latour 1989). With regards to these models, South Korea relates most closely to 'a simplified functionalist top-down model, where a group of people

with clear political aims codify a specific history for consumption by the general public' (Sommer 2009, 104).

As a result, the management of, and management plans for, archaeological sites do not clearly define their goals; their vision tends to be generic and analogous; while aim and purposes are often rendered in very simple terms. Perhaps, this was an acceptable course between the 1960 and 1980s, when it was necessary to reform or create the Korean identity; but the necessity of a new paradigm has been apparent since the 1980s, from whence this sense of identity has needed to be both maintained and enhanced. It means that the goals of management plans are given in a top-down manner, but are set up within a site specific context. Thus, precise goals can produce defined management strategies.

Topic	Why	
Issues	Ownership	Identity
Transformation of Perceptible issues	Physical ownership (private property) ↓ Intellectual ownership (public or common property)	Limited people ↓ General public
Challenges in South Korean approaches	Conflicts between private ownership and public ownership. Predetermined vision, aim and purpose in management planning.	Ambiguous conceptions for vision, aim and purpose in management planning Generic vision, aim and purpose

Figure 53: Transformation of issues related to 'Why'.

## 4.5 The Object: 'What?' – Values and Assessment

### 4.5.1 Types of value

#### 4.5.1.1 *Overlooking intangible resources*

As in the international context (see Chapter 2.4.1), the protection of archaeological resources in South Korea began with the tangible remains of the past, and was given a legal framework in the 1960s with the enactment of *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*. In this legal context, the major aims and purpose of management were centred on the protection of tangible remains with traditional values, and these still attract much attention. According to the recommendation of CHA in South Korea, management should be organised on a site-specific basis, taking into account the historic-cultural circumstances of neighbouring areas (Moon, Seok-Ki and Jang, Ho-Su 2011, 70). In particular, Moon and Jang suggested building an ecological park for the Palaeolithic or Neolithic buried sites in South Korea, which includes its surrounding environment as a solution (Moon, Seok-Ki and Jang, Ho-Su 2011, 70). Although this solution is debatable, it is important to consider a site's surrounding environment. Whilst, in spite of this recommendation, many plans still show a lack of recognition of the landscape. For instance, *Jeongokri* is the oldest archaeological site in South Korea: it was formed at least 250,000 years ago, and the topography of the site and of its neighbouring area is made up of a basalt plateau, which was formed 300,000 to 600,000 years ago, on top of which red clay was deposited. As a result, an outstanding columnar joint was formed along the Hantan River, which



runs through *Jeongokri* (Figure 54). It has been called '*Juk-Buck*', which means 'Red Wall' or 'Red Cliff' in Korean. This scenery has represented the local neighbouring area, including *Jeongokri*, for a long time (Figure 54).



Figure 54: Landscape painting of the *Juk-Buck* (painted by Jung-Sun in the 17<sup>th</sup> century) (ICPHY, 2002).



Figure 55: The scenery of the columnar joint (Juk-buck) near Jeongokri

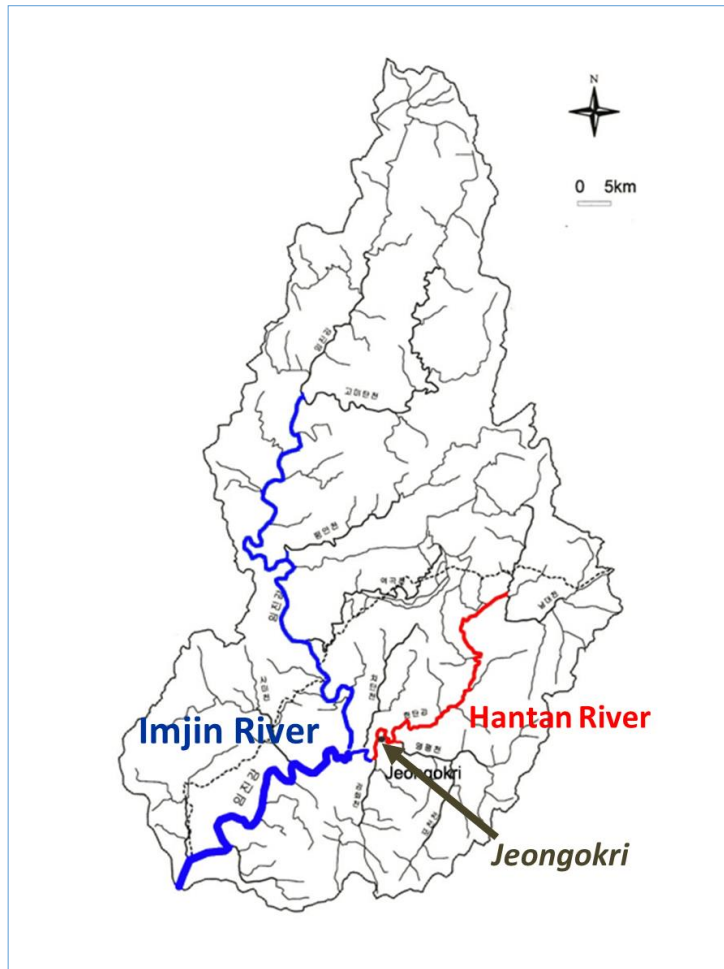


Figure 56: Map of the Im-Jin and Hantan rivers.

This landscape issue is more serious in the case of buried archaeological sites, in particular, rescue excavated sites. Considering the practical issues and problems of rescue archaeology, the number of sites protected by *in-situ* or removal may not be a major issue. Rather, the method of protection is the key concern.

According to statistics released by the Korea Cultural Properties Investigation and Research Association (KCPIA) in 2008, the number of sites protected after rescue excavation between 1990 and 2007 by *in-situ* was 235, while the number of sites protected by removal for the same period was 159 (KCPIA 2008, 1). It may be said that *in-situ* represents a better solution than the protection of sites by

removal, which involves the relocation of a site to a new place, without any consideration for the landscape. *Sosadong* was protected *in-situ* after the rescue excavation. As Figure 58 shows, although the site has partly disappeared, the south and west areas of the site still remain contextualised within the landscape. In many cases, however, the new location of sites protected by removal is decided without any consideration for the context of the site's original landscape. In an ideal scenario, the remains would be moved to the museum or set up for display, but in many cases, the remains, once removed, have either been ignored or are isolated within their new location (see Figure 59).

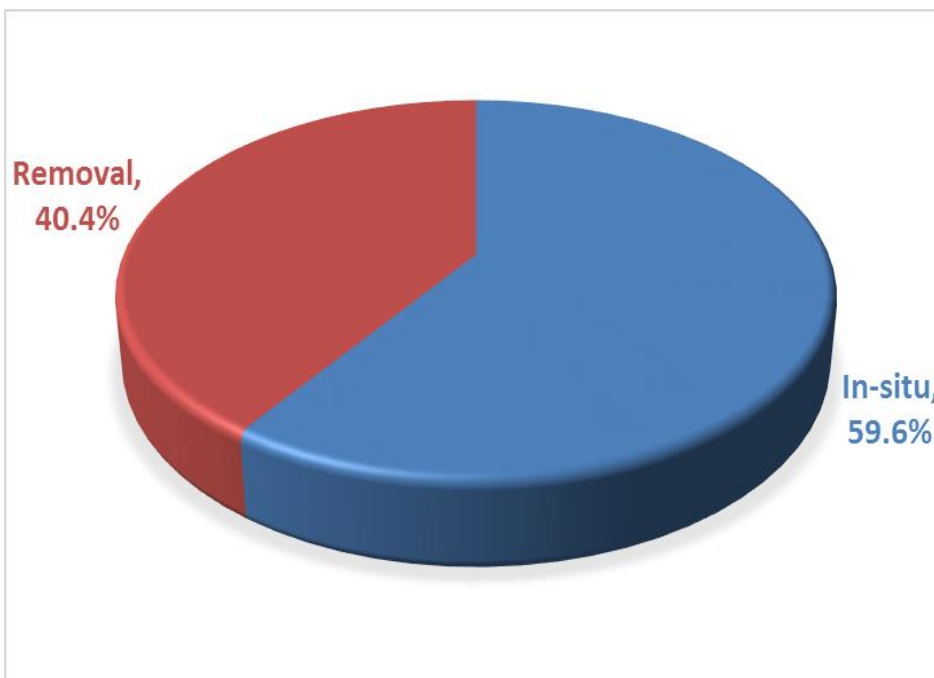


Figure 57: The percentage of sites protected by in-situ and removal after rescue excavations between 1990 and 2007 (KCPIA 2008, 1).



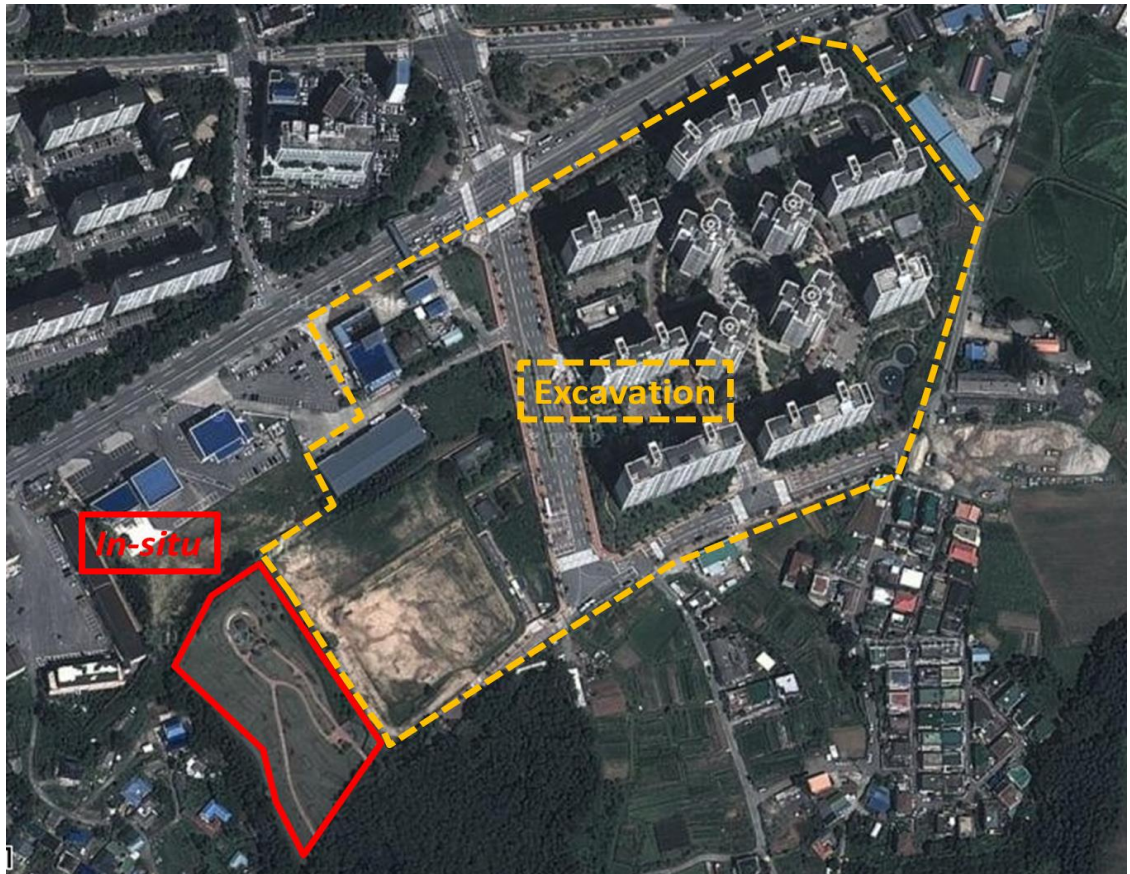


Figure 58: A recent aerial photograph of *Sosadong* (from Google maps).



Figure 59: Examples of removed sites after excavations: *Wonwolri* dolmens, *Indongri* dolmens, *Dajiri* dolmen (Bronze Age), and *Sung-am* tombs (Three Kingdom Period).

This landscape issue is more serious in the case of buried archaeological sites, in particular, rescue excavated sites. Considering the practical issues and problems of rescue archaeology, the number of sites protected by *in-situ* or removal may not be a major issue. Rather, the method of protection is the key concern. According to statistics released by the Korea Cultural Properties Investigation and Research Association (KCPIA) in 2008, the number of sites protected after rescue excavation between 1990 and 2007 by *in-situ* was 235, while the number of sites protected by removal for the same period was 159 (KCPIA 2008, 1). It may be said that *in-situ* represents a better solution than the protection of sites by removal, which involves the relocation of a site to a new place, without any consideration for the landscape. *Sosadong* was protected *in-situ* after the rescue excavation. As Figure 58 shows, although the site has partly disappeared, the south and west areas of the site still remain contextualised within the landscape. In many cases, however, the new location of sites protected by removal is decided without any consideration for the context of the site's original landscape. In an ideal scenario, the remains would be moved to the museum or set up for display, but in many cases, the remains, once removed, have either been ignored or are isolated within their new location (see Figure 59).

#### 4.5.1.2 *Management plans for a particular value: economic value*

In a broad sense, management plans for an archaeological resource cover multiple aspects, from the physical conservation of a resource to the protection of diverse values associated with past remains. And the protection of values can

mean anything from safeguarding values to discovering and enhancing values. Consequently, the management of archaeological sites should bear in mind the different kinds of values relevant to a site, such as traditional values and socio-economic or contemporary values. It is regarded as a positive development that many of the recently conducted management plans in South Korea have placed more focus on contemporary values, such as socio-economic, than past values. This recent trend is due to the fact that archaeological resources have come to be viewed as an important social resource in South Korea, as in the international trend for viewing 'heritage' as 'commodity' (e.g. Rowan and Baram 2004). The issue in South Korea is that this new perspective places too much weight upon economic value, which is based on market value (although there are different kinds of contemporary value).

As seen in Chapter 2.4.1.2, socio-economic values can also come in different forms, which can be defined as values associated with or formed by groups or individuals in the present. Economic value based on market or monetary value does not fully represent contemporary values - or even economic value - but is a kind of contemporary value. However, this economic value is nevertheless likely to be the major contemporary value in South Korea. In order to protect contemporary values, for instance, the *Jeongokri* plan 2003 included measures for enhancing local identity and promoting the local economy. However, such an approach may be problematic, for, as seen in the previous chapter, the main aim of the plan was to promote the site as a resource for tourism. Although

there may be certain issues with such tourism strategies, which will be explored in later chapters, the main issue in this emphasis is the absence of a rational assessment of values, such as Statement of Significance. The aims and purpose should be set up on the basis of a clear assessment of a site's value. The *Jeongokri* plan included background information about the site, including some points about the meaning and significance of the site; however, there is little to be found in terms of a concrete assessment of the value and meaning of the site. Even points about the significance of the site were based mainly on general information, such as the important archaeological evidence that the site offers regarding the origin of the Korean people (*Jeongokri* being the oldest and largest designated archaeological site in South Korea).

Even the significance of the site was evaluated against a backdrop of academic values, which the *Jeongokri* plan 2003 deals with in a separate chapter (ICHHY 2003, 36-40). The nature of buried archaeological sites, however, such as the increased academic potential for research into the prehistoric period, it is not the only value of the site. It is obviously meaningful that *Jeongokri* was the first Palaeolithic site to be discovered in South Korea, and that it contained the first Acheulean type hand axes in East Asia (see Chapter 3.2.1 and ICHHY 2003, 36-40). Professionals have seen this as a good enough reason for protecting or designating the site, however it ought to be remembered that this is not enough to convince the general public of the importance of such a course of action. In fact, local residents, for instance, could negatively perceive this archaeological



value because it directly conflicts with their property rights. The 2003 plan emphasised the economic benefits that the site would bring in order to offset the dissatisfaction of the local public. Nevertheless, it cannot be said that the plan fully understood the socio-economic or contemporary value of *Jeongokri*.

This ambiguity regarding the assessment of diverse values is more serious in rescue archaeology. Since the conflicts in rescue archaeology in South Korea in the 1990s, decision makers have tried to improve the process. As a result, a new legal framework, *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, has been enacted. This new law also recommends choosing one of the following protection methods depending on the value of the resources involved: *in-situ* (including reburial), removal, and recording, as does the previous act, the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*. For this, the new law recommends the values assessment criteria (Figure 60 and Figure 61). This is potentially a good change in terms of transparent decision-making, but there is still an issue: less consideration of socio-economic value and more focus on tangible remains with traditional values. As Figure 60 shows, the criteria consist of three categories: characteristics, condition, and site potential. The "characteristics" of a site are one of several typical traditional values that are discovered by professionals, such as historical, archaeological and academic values, cultural values, etc. "Condition" relates to a site's physical integrity, and can include a site's tangible remains. Although the "potential" category deals with socio-economic values, it tends to be biased towards monetary value. To sum up, these criteria still underestimate

or overlook those intangible factors relating to archaeological resources, and the contemporary values that are formed and created by the general public.

The assessment of the values relating to archaeological sites should be sophisticated and rational for the transparency of decision-making. For this, the assessment in *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011* employed a numeric-based measuring system (Figure 61), but this is also problematic. The basis of this system is a quantitative assessment of values, but such a thing is almost impossible because of the dynamic nature of values. Values are constantly transformed by changing circumstances and the dynamic composition of interested parties. Consequently, it is extremely difficult for professionals to assess them in a short temporal moment, such as at an Expert Meeting in rescue excavation contexts.

Characteristics of site	1) Historic value: the importance for historical research 2) Time: the period which the site represents 3) Rarity 4) Locality: representing the specific local area
Condition of site	1) Interior of the site: integrity 2) Exterior of the site: integrity 3) Landscape: location
Potential for use	1) Accessibility: physical access 2) Usability: potential for education 3) Balance with landscape: location of site-potential for tourism resources 4) Relationship with other resources: potential to link to other tourism resources

Figure 60: Assessment criteria form in *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*.

Assessment article	Detailed article	The weighting by grade			Overall for decision	
		Good	Normal	Bad	<i>In-situ</i>	Removal
Total		100.00	60.00	20.00	74.31	63.92
	Sub-total	(56.30)	(33.78)	(11.26)	43.09	37.80
	History	(22.10)	(13.26)	(4.42)	17.26	15.26

Characteristic of site	Time	(12.10)	(7.26)	(2.42)	9.47	8.31
	Rarity	(15.20)	(9.12)	(3.04)	10.83	9.18
	Region	(6.90)	(4.14)	(1.38)	5.53	4.85
Condition of site	Sub-total	(20.08)	(12.48)	(4.16)	14.98	13.39
	Interior	(12.50)	(7.50)	(2.50)	9.43	8.58
	Exterior	(4.08)	(2.88)	(0.96)	3.25	2.83
	Landscape	(3.50)	(2.10)	(0.70)	2.30	1.98
Use of site	Sub-total	(22.90)	(13.74)	(4.58)	16.24	12.93
	Accessibility	(5.80)	(3.48)	(1.16)	4.53	3.78
	Usability	(8.40)	(5.04)	(1.68)	5.90	4.71
	Relation with the area	(4.30)	(2.58)	(0.86)	2.90	2.20
	Relation with resources	(4.40)	(2.64)	(0.88)	2.91	2.34

Figure 61:

Measuring system in *Buried Heritage Protection and Investigation Law 2011*.

How effectively does the recently revised legal framework deal with the issues that are relevant in South Korea today?							
Answer Options	Very good	Good	Medium	Bad	Very Bad	Rating Average	Response Count
	0.0%	7.7%	43.6%	41.0%	7.7%	3.49	39
	8	5	5	14	5		
Answered question							39
Skipped question							0

Figure 62: Questionnaire responses regarding the effectiveness of the current legal framework.

Not surprisingly, the system does not achieve the purpose that it is designed for: the criteria seem to be seen merely as a convenient decision-making methodology, rather than the means by which rational and transparent decisions can be made. Accordingly, even Korean professionals believe that *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011* is not effective in dealing with the issues that are important today (see Figure 62).

#### 4.5.1.3 *Conclusion*

To sum up, there are two challenges regarding the issues of 'What' in South Korea: the manner in which intangible values are overlooked, and the lack of a transparent assessment of diverse values. In fact, these two challenges also closely related to issues of typology of values and defined conceptions for different values. In the recent trend for managing archaeological resources, for example, the most important object of protection has been the diverse values of the resources, such as value-based management planning including tangible and intangible values and the traditional and contemporary values (see Chapter 2.4.1.2). For this value-based approach, two comprehensive steps are required for management: the typology or classification of values, and the transparent assessment of the values. These steps are also necessary for rational decision-making as a whole. In the early years of Archaeological Resource Management, the object of management tended to focus on tangible aspects of the resources based on traditional values (see Chapter 2.4.1.1) while the management has placed attention on diverse and more varied values including intangible and socio-economic values over time (see Chapter 2.4.1.2). As research in the field developed, professionals have increasingly become aware of, and taken into account in management planning, the diverse range of values associated even with a single archaeological site. Not surprisingly, many scholars and organizations related to the management of archaeological resources have suggested some different typologies of values, in line with their own interests

and goals (for instance, Figure 18). Thus, there is no right or wrong typology, nor is there a perfect typology. In applying any typology, values should be assessed in a sophisticated way. In management planning, assessment is an essential first step for setting up strategies for conservation, protection, presentation and interpretation of an archaeological resource. This necessarily includes critical decision-making. In order to understand and assess values, the Statement of Significance is a useful tool. As a result, the statement has become an essential part of management plans today. Unfortunately, the steps of conception, typology, assessment and Statement of Significance are absent from the field of Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea. As a result, some important challenges have emerged in the field.

#### 4.5.2 Authenticity

##### 4.5.2.1 *The physical integrity of archaeological resources*

The issue related to authenticity in South Korea is that the concept is still at an early stage compared with international trends; for example, authenticity is recognized as simply a matter of “original” versus “fake” in terms of the physical integrity of remains. Fundamentally, this is due to a lack of discussion and debate about authenticity (e.g. Kim, Chang-Gyo and Ryu, Ho-Cheol 2006, 23-24), with much of the discussion focusing primarily on the physical integrity of sites.

This lack of agreement about authenticity in South Korea has led to ambiguity in some protection works. For instance, the terms often included in management

plans, such as maintenance, repair, reconstruction, restoration, adaptation, reuse, etc., can be defined by the extent of the authenticity and the intervention in any given protection work. In order to reach a clear definition, intangible factors should also be taken into account, such as technique, workmanship, and setting, as well as physical components, such as the form, shape and material. All these conceptions, however, have been used ambiguously in South Korea. Accordingly, the intentions underlying the terms are not clear. For instance, restoration of the *Namdaemoon*, which has been designated the country's No.1 National Treasure represents a recent controversy that is relevant to archaeological resources in South Korea more generally. After a tragic fire in 2008 (Figure 63), large-scale restoration works were carried out (Figure 64), and the site was reopened in May 2013 (Figure 65). Just five months later, however, the restoration work became the subject of debate as regards whether the materials and techniques that had been used were authentic or not; in fact, it seems that the work was either 'real' or 'fake'. The issue in this controversy and debate is, first of all, that no one formalised a definition of the recovery work in the early stages, e.g. is it restoration, rebuilding or reconstruction work? It would be fair to say the work is close to rebuilding or reconstruction; however, the title of the project was '復元 or 復舊', which translates as 'restoration' or 'repair'. The use of the term did not consider the defined conceptions or different definitions of the terms. If the work had been defined from the start, the controversy might not have been so intense, because the materials and/or techniques would have been decided by

the characteristics of the work. In addition, if South Korean professionals had agreed upon the meaning of authenticity, then the arguments about the work would not be just a matter of whether it was 'real and original' or 'fake'.



Figure 63: The *Namdaemoon* before (left) and after the fire in 2008 (pictures from Yeonhap Newspaper).

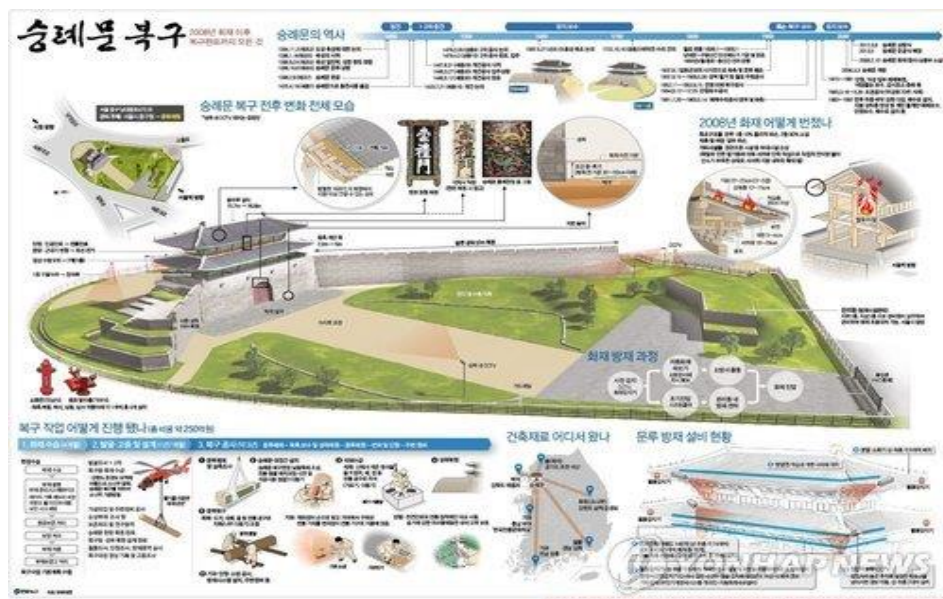


Figure 64: The plan for restoring the *Namdaemoon* (from Yeonhap Newspaper).



Figure 65: After the recovery work in 2013 (from Yeonhap Newspaper).

#### 4.5.2.2 *'Staged authenticity' in management planning*

Although it is obvious that protection works in management plans should retain authenticity, the authenticity should be considered from diverse viewpoints. For this, it is worth considering the concept of 'staged authenticity', instead of 'real' or 'fake'. For example, excavation pit S55E20 at *Jeongokri* has tended to be ignored due to the authenticity issue, despite its undoubted significance (it is 7.5m deep and has 7 layers): it was recognized by archaeologists as a good source for studying the formation processes pertaining to the site and its geology. Due to its archaeological significance and unusual view, conservation work was carried out. However, most of the relevant professionals believe that the pit has lost its authenticity as a consequence of the conservation work (see Figure 66) because the pit is different from what they expected. First of all, the results of the conservation work do not show the original figure of the pit when it was excavated. Although the detail of the conservation work is unknown because



the initial report remains unpublished, it is undoubtedly the case that modern material was used to cover the wall of the pit, and the soil stratum was painted without any advice from professionals (see Figure 66). In doing so, the pit lost its authentic features such as the typical soil crack mark of the Palaeolithic layer (see bottom feature in Figure 66). As a result, the pit was excluded from the *Jeongokri Site* management plan in 2003.



Figure 66: The S55E20 pit before (right) and after (left) the conservation work.

The point is that important issues should not be viewed in terms of a dichotomy, such as 'authentic' or 'inauthentic'. Such a decision does not just depend on the view of professionals, but also on the interests of the public. Cohen (1979), for example, suggests four different types of authenticity based on the perspective

of visitors: 'authentic experience', 'staged authenticity', 'denial of authenticity' and 'contrived authenticity.' Timothy (2003, 240) insists that the general public could be satisfied with 'staged authenticity,' which means that 'the situation is staged or made up for tourists, and that tourists are unable to distinguish this from reality'. According to this view, the S55E20 pit could be used for presentation and interpretation, and its authenticity might be recovered in an alternative way. This is the role of the management plan.

#### 4.5.2.3 *Conclusion*

To sum up, the discussion regarding authenticity in South Korea is unable to deal with current South Korean issues, including the debate over whether sites and their constituent parts are authentic or inauthentic in terms of their physical integrity. As a result, the values of archaeological sites are often misunderstood or misread by professionals and the public. However, there have been many discussions in international trends since the Athens Charter of 1932 (see Chapter 2.4.3). The key conception in recent discussions is that of diversity in authenticity (Chapter 2.4.3.2). In other words, assessing authenticity is not a simple question to decide 'real' or 'fake', but it is work that requires diverse values to be associated with it both physically and intellectually. Moreover, it can be differently assessed or understood depending on cultures – cultural diversity by the Nara Charter (see Chapter 2.4.3.2). With regard to management planning, the reason such diversity is necessary, is the close relationship between

authenticity and the transparent assessment of diverse values that can feasibly be used to build up management strategies.

Topic	What	
Issues	Values	Authenticity
Transformation of Perceptible issues	Traditional value ↓ Traditional + Contemporary values	Physical integrity ↓ Diversity
Challenges in South Korean approaches	Traditional values based No rational assessment system for diverse value	Deficient discussion for conception of authenticity Unsound assessing of authenticity

Figure 67: Transformation of issues related to 'What'

## 4.6 The Object: 'How?' – Management Strategy - Interpretation & Presentation

### 4.6.1 Setting up a management strategy

#### 4.6.1.1 *Little strategic approach for management: Unified plans*

Not surprisingly, these strategies should be set in the site-specific context against issues and challenges that an archaeological site confronts. At present, however, management plans in South Korea tend to be homogenous, rather than the site-specific. In a broad sense, the South Korean homogeneity of strategies began with the early stages of the management planning process, with 'Who', closely related to the questions of 'Why' and 'What'. Practically, they result from the absence of an appropriate planning model in South Korea. For instance, as seen in Chapter 4.3.1, planning teams tend to consist of a number of professionals, often including archaeologists, with the government as the most powerful

stakeholder. The aims and purpose of the plan, which are generated by both professionals and the government, tend to be very generic or ambiguous (for instance, see Chapter 4.4.2.1). This means that site-specific issues and challenges are not identified clearly and concretely. As a result, strategies set up in the 'How' process are seldom site-specific; all plans are likely to reach a similar result, such as the building of a museum or the restoration of the site for the promotion of its economic value. Although these approaches could be broadly applicable, the strategic approaches should reflect the circumstances of a site, based on the site-specific context, which should be based on an assessment of the values of the site. For instance, high tech, large-scale on-site museums and authentic restoration are not the ideal solutions to the issues and challenges of every archaeological site. Nevertheless, the construction of a large-scale on-site museum seems to be a very common strategy in South Korean management plans today. However, the scale or themes of an on-site museum should be informed by a careful understanding of the significance of the site, and should take into consideration the money and time available to achieve the aims and purpose of the plan, which are produced on a site-specific basis.

Unfortunately, this logical process for following through strategic approaches in South Korea is not adhered to. Jo Sung-Yong (2007), a South Korean scholar, pointed out that the on-site museums currently planned in the country have neither a clear aim nor a clear purpose. Most museums are planned without fully understanding the values and significance of the archaeological site in question.

In addition, an on-site museum should be built in accordance with the preservation of the site in terms of design, display, and collections. In South Korea, however, this is often not the case (Jo, Sung-Yong 2007, 11). For instance, the *Jeongokri* Management Plan 2003 also includes provision for building a museum at the site that amounts to one of the largest museums relating to the Palaeolithic era in South Korea. There is, however, little specific mention or analysis of the site's values and their incorporation into the museum; instead, the plan starts by addressing the importance of the site with a general sentence along the lines of '*Jeongokri* is an outstanding Palaeolithic site for Korea as well as internationally' (ICPHY 2003, 19), failing to elaborate on any strategic explanation for the necessity of the museum. As in other management plans, those conducting the *Jeongokri* plan were aware of the museum as an essential part of the plan, as originally included in the local government's planning; however the plan should have stated the justification for a museum, with an appropriate assessment of the relevant values. Undoubtedly, the establishment of a museum is a good method for interpretation, but its scale and nature should have been justified with reference to an understanding of the diverse values and significance of *Jeongokri*.

Considering that the strategic approach to the question of 'How' is a logical process and the result of the planning process, the issues and challenges are closely related to the assessment phase in particular. The most controversial issues linked to 'How' relate to rescue excavations, where transparent decision-

making is a particular issue, particularly when it comes to agreeing an approach for post-excavation protection. Given the nature of buried sites, excavation is an essential part of management planning, as well as academic research, and it inevitably includes difficult decision making after excavation. Unfortunately, it is hard to say whether the current decision making system in South Korea fully considers the diversity of values when engaging in sophisticated decision-making (see Chapter 2.4.2). The main problem, here, is that strategies for the protection of the site are limited to whether the method of protection is *in-situ*, reburial, removal or recording. A strategic approach is not just about arguing over the number of excavated sites protected by *in-situ*, rather, it incorporates strategies for the use of excavation results including their interpretation and presentation. For this use of a site, although it is obvious that *in-situ* protection should be the preferred option, strategies are still required for the interpretation and presentation of the values of the site, in addition to its protection through other methods, such as recording. In this light, the small museum and park on the site of *Sosadong* site poses be a good example of how to strike a balance between the development and protection of rescue excavation sites; however it is not always like this in South Korea.

#### 4.6.1.2 Conclusion

To sum up, the challenge regarding the issues of 'How' is the lack of site-specific management approaches in management plans in South Korea. It stems from the lack of a logical framework for strategic management approaches in

planning, incorporating such issues as the presence of an exclusive planning team, predetermined and generic goals, and a lack of clarity in the assessment of diverse values. Undoubtedly management plans inevitably involve a variety of decision-making possibilities for such issues and challenges. Thus, the management planning models generated by professionals and organizations aim to provide effective strategies against such issues and challenges, which involve a principle, a roadmap or a set of guidelines covering a wide range of matters of concern, such as intellectual principles, the development of physical facilities, time and budget, human resources, the boundaries of a site, including buffer zones, public engagement and accessibility, monitoring, interpretation and presentation, etc.

In order to set up such strategic management approaches, which can be the result of decision-making in the management planning, the diverse values of archaeological sites must be understood, and the values assessed transparently; in other words, management approaches should be made based on the rational assessment of diverse values in order to make them dynamic and site-specific.

#### 4.6.2 Strategies for the Interpretation

Considering the issues and challenges related to 'How' in management planning for archaeological sites in South Korea, it is fair to say that interpretation and presentation are important parts of management approaches. Their importance is also agreed upon by South Korean professionals (Figure 69). However, there

are still challenges to resolve in South Korea when it comes to interpretation and presentation. In a logical planning process, interpretation that are coherent with the larger goals of plans and presentation is, rather, the smaller goal of plans in accordance with previously outlined definitions (see Chapter 2.5.1.1). The challenge here is there is little in the way of defined conceptions in producing management approaches in South Korea, including interpretation and presentation.

#### 4.6.2.1 *Less strategic decisions for interpretation*

For interpretation requiring a strategic approach, management plans for buried archaeological sites often employ restoration work as a critical strategy.

Restoration is more useful and important for buried archaeological sites, because such sites are typically difficult to interpret and present due to their nature, i.e. their invisibility. In addition, considering the fragility of such sites when they are exposed, decisions relating to restoration should take into account various factors – for example, the potential significance of a site for future generations, the site's physical condition, and the type of conservation techniques to be used in its restoration. Accordingly, various questions should be considered: 'is a site significant enough to deserve restoration?', 'is restoration useful when it comes to interpreting values?', 'do the public or stakeholders want the site to be restored?' In addition, there are further practical questions to consider, such as 'what part of a site should be restored?', 'does the qualified information for restoration include the original design, materials, techniques and even the



traditional ceremonies related to the work?', 'can the current conservation technology including the time and budget afford for restoration?' and 'is the site maintained well for the future?' etc. These questions must all be considered in order to enhance the values of a site for the future, balancing the protection and use of archaeological remains.

From this perspective, one ought to question the value of restoration in South Korea as a strategic decision for interpretation. Most problematically, conservation work is regarded as the main goal of a strategy in itself, rather than as work that is part of an interpretation strategy within management planning. As a result, the questions above receive little in the way of consideration, despite the importance of their investigation in order to develop suitable interpretation strategies. This is, perhaps, due to the absence of an agreed definition or conception of restoration work in South Korea. At first glance, South Korean professionals have recently engaged in a lively discussion regarding the restoration of archaeological resources, in particular, on the issue of authenticity (Chapter 2.4.3). In fact, such debate remains at an elementary level, as was the case for the debate over real or fake previously outlined. The 'Why' discussion remains at this elementary level is because of a lack of agreement over the definition of key terms, such as "maintenance," "restoration," "reconstruction" etc. (e.g. Kim, Chang-Gyo and Ryu, Ho-Cheol 2006, 23-24). Some archaeological resources, which certain professionals have insisted are 'inauthentic work,' can – instead – be viewed from a different angle. For this alternate perspective on

authenticity, the questions noted above should be considered, including those that relate to the significance of the site, physical condition, as well as information such as the original design, building materials and techniques, etc. These questions are related to the type of conservation work as well as to the issue of authenticity.

In the case of archaeological excavation, such strategic approaches to interpretation have been comparatively less favourable. Most archaeological excavations in South Korea that have taken place since the 1990s have been rescue excavations (see Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4), and a number of excavated sites have been protected by recording, with only a small number of sites retained *in-situ* (usually being reburied for their protection; see Figure 5 and Figure 6). The point of this research is not the number of *in-situ* preserved sites, but the interpretation strategy after the selection of protection method, whether in-situ, reburial, removal or recording. For instance, parts of *Sosadong* preserved *in-situ* deserve to be explored not for *in-situ* preservation, but for how they might elucidate the interpretation and presentation of the site to the public after excavation, rather than because the site was not simply *in-situ* and reburied (see Figure 68). Although it is debatable whether the small public park and the simple information panel in *Sosadong* was the best method of interpretation and presentation, it served as a good example of the choice of a preservation method that considered interpretation and presentation to the public after the excavation. As seen in Figure 5 and Figure 6, the number of sites preserved *in-*

*situ* after excavation in South Korea has increased; however this does not mean that the interpretation strategy has been developed.

*'... what have (South Korean) archaeologists done until now? They just dig and dig sites for their own desire. See 000 site!! They excavated 10 years ago and designated it as a National Historic Site, then what happened? Nothing. They have left and neglected the site. It is nothing different from just grass. They announced significant archaeological remains discovered at the site, but where is it? I cannot see that. In my mind, they should think (what to do with the site) first, and dig later, not dig and think!'*

(Personal conversation with a member of the Facebook Group '*Heritage, spring of the Future*' (see Chapter 1.6.3))



Figure 68. The public park in *Sosadong* (left); illustration of a Bronze Age house after reburial (upper-right); a sign panel for the house (bottom-right).

What should be the most important activities to be developed at archaeological sites? (number for 1 (most important) to 4(least important)						
Answer Options	1—	2—	3—	4—	Rating Average	Response Count
	Important-----					
	unimportant					
Improvement of physical accessibility	35.90%	41.03%	12.82%	10.26%	1.97	39
	14	16	5	4		
	23.68%	44.74%	23.68%	7.89%	2.16	38

On-site presentation for the public	9	17	9	3		
Interpretation of professional archaeological knowledge for the public	44.74%	15.79%	28.95%	10.53%	2.05	38
	17	6	11	4		
Making economic benefits from the site	7.89%	2.63%	23.68%	65.79%	3.47	38
	3	1	9	25		
Answered question						37
Skipped question						2

Figure 69. Questionnaire responses regarding important activities for the development of sites.

#### 4.6.2.2 *Less accessibility for presentation of buried archaeological sites*

The physical accessibility of managing buried sites, especially during excavations, is likely to be one of the concerns regarding interpretation that is challenged.

Whether in management plans or rescue archaeology, excavation is an important process for obtaining information for presentation. In management plans, the information obtained from excavation is presented within an interpretive infrastructure, such as a visitor centre or an on-site museum. Even in rescue excavations, the information uncovered is presented and interpreted in a variety of ways, such as through the display of excavated artefacts in a museum, or through the installation of a simple panel on the site, whether an excavated site is protected by *in-situ* or by recording.



Figure 70: Pictures of a simulated excavation pit at the *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival.

To sum up, the public can access archaeological information after an excavation. However, as the interest of the public in archaeology increases, the public seems to pay more attention to excavation as an experience in itself. For instance, simulated excavation is one of the most popular programmes at the *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival (see Chapter 3.1.1 and Figure 70), while recent similar programmes have drawn public interest in South Korea (Shin, Hee-Kweon 2012, 202).

This interest has inevitably led to an accessibility issue. Given the public's interest in archaeological excavation, the issue of accessibility should be questioned in South Korea. Just as a buried site should be opened up through an archaeological excavation because it is located underground, so an excavation should also be opened up to the public in order to best present a site. Yet, according to South Korean law, an excavation site is seldom open to, or able to be accessed by, the general public; *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, for instance, states that excavated sites should not be

open to the public without an agreement between the relevant excavators and developers (Article 15). In addition, the CHA must be notified in advance if a site is going to be opened up to the public which is not mandatory by law. In terms of the order of excavation that might be most readily made accessible to the public, academic excavations are likely to prove more straightforward than rescue excavations. Since there is little difference between the purpose of excavations within the legal framework, it is the degree (or lack) of controversy associated with academic excavations that is significant here. At *Jeongokri*, 13 excavations have been conducted, for both academic, management, and rescue purposes (see Figure 23); however, none of these excavations have been open to the public.

It is also of significance that the accessibility of rescue excavation sites is often more restricted. Rescue archaeology in South Korea has been a crucial point of social conflict (for instance, see Chapter 4.6.2.2) since 1990, and the public often view rescue excavations in negative terms, since they are thought to obstruct the economic development of an area. In these circumstances access to sites has been deliberately limited in order to dampen the conflict. Although the Act on *Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011* has been partly adopted, access to a highly significant site is only allowed with the agreement of the relevant excavators and developers. This means that excavated sites are seldom open, even to people related to a site; indeed, access by these groups may be deliberately restricted in order to reduce the conflict that might arise

from individuals garnering information such as the progress of the excavations. Obviously, this has a negative impact on archaeology. According to the modern conception of Archaeological Resource Management, the public is an important stakeholder, even if members of the public sometimes have a negative view of archaeology. Consequently, the deliberate exclusion of the public is not a solution to conflict in the long term.

With regard to the issue of presenting an excavated site, the next concern arises after the archaeological excavation has taken place. As the number of sites protected by *in-situ* or removal has increased (for instance, see Figure 5 and Figure 6), the presentation of sites has become a new challenge (e.g. see Figure 59). For example, the Korea Cultural Properties Investigation and Research Institute Association (KCPIA) conducted a condition survey for *in-situ* sites after the rescue excavations that took place in 2008. The survey covered 394 sites (KCPIA 2008, 1); most of the *in-situ* sites are reburied and covered by soil and grass, with the only presentation facility being a small information panel. In terms of the role of archaeologists, which is to discover information, as well as to deliver and explain it to the general public, the presentation of excavated sites should take into account the views of the public; for instance, McGimsey (1972, 6) suggested that the concern of the public is 'completeness of data recovered and ultimate and continued public availabilities of the artefact and permanently identified and with adequate accompanying data permanently preserved'.

#### 4.6.2.3 *No monitoring for the progress of management plans*

In terms of the view that the issue of 'How' involves setting up a strategy covering interpretation and presentation in management planning for an archaeological site, this strategy should be reviewed, and progress should be assessed; in addition, strategies should be evaluated and revised if necessary. All of this together is encompassed by the 'Monitoring' process, and it is an essential stage of any management plan. In fact, this is the phase that is most commonly missed in South Korea. As seen in the questionnaire data, even Korean experts overlook it (Figure 71). This 'monitoring' has been very important in management planning, because the values and condition of archaeological sites keep changing. In particular, contemporary values are in flux because of change through time and across people. In an intellectual sense, management plans should always reflect such changes and differences. In practice, many management plans in South Korea aim to enhance the local identity of a community, and, often, these aims involve strategies for transforming negative perceptions of an archaeological site into positive perceptions; for example, the *Jeongokri* Prehistory Museum at *Jeongokri* was built and opened in order to enhance the identity and economy of the local community. As such, one of the important aims of the 2003 management plan was realised; however, there is no review process, and monitoring is altogether absent, even from the museum plan (ICHPY 2007), which might ordinarily be expected to review the contribution of the museum to the local community.



Monitoring is important because monitored data may be a source with which to revise and develop a management plan in the future. Accordingly, periodic monitoring would be a good way. It is difficult to specify the time scale for periodic monitoring, because a plan includes strategies and tactics requiring long-medium-short term vision, aims and purpose, and progress should be explored that cross-cuts these scales. They require different time scales to assess achievements or contributions. Because of the importance and nature of 'Monitoring', it is necessary that a strategy be carefully designed.



Figure 71. Questionnaire responses regarding factors to be developed in planning.

#### 4.6.2.4 Conclusion

To sum up, perhaps, the biggest issue regarding interpretation and presentation, which is an important part of issue of 'How' in South Korea, is a lack of defined conceptions related to management approaches. Consequently, this has caused

practical challenges such as controversial debate into authenticity in restoration work for interpretation, public accessibility in presenting a site, etc.

Internationally, however, the fundamental conception has been defined by both scholars and organisations, as seen in Chapter 2.5.1.1; for instance, according to the ICMAH (2008), 'interpretation' means delivering the values and significance of an archaeological site to the public, while "presentation" involves displaying the values and significance to visitors. The 'presentation' proposed by the ICMAH is narrow in its conception when compared with 'interpretation', likely a strategy to show and display archaeological sites to visitors. Inevitably, presentation can take into account public reactions more immediately, actively, and quickly. For presentation of this kind, the ICMAH highlighted 'interpretive information, physical access, and interpretive infrastructure' (ICMAH 2008, 2).

With regard to management approaches, it is likely that interpretation needs a strategic approach that deals with wider issues and challenges in a comparatively long-term perspective, such as issues relating to restoration, while the presentation is likely to work in parallel with short-term management plans, such as displaying the sites to visitors. It means that the management approaches for interpretation and presentation should be set up in relation to a consideration of the goals that the approaches that they are intended to achieve.

To sum up, the interpretation strategy should be developed with a full understanding of the historic meaning and significance of a site; it should be

prepared with a long-term view; and it should meet the vision or aim of the plan (Figure 72).

Vision	Strategic Approach	Long-term Plan
Aim	Strategic & Tactical Approach	Medium-term Plan
Purpose	Tactical Approach	Short-term Plan

Figure 72. Conception of strategic decision making.

Topic	How	
Issues	Presentation & Interpretation	Interpretation & Education
Transformation of Perceptible issues	Ambiguous conceptions ↓ Interpreting values and presenting sites based on defied conceptions	Presenting physical remains ↓ Education resources
Challenges in South Korean approaches	Non site-specific management approaches stemming from the absence of the logical process for strategic management approaches	Accessibility to archaeological sites

Figure 73. Issues and problems in current approaches to the management of buried archaeological remains in South Korea.

## **5 Approaches to building a holistic planning model for South Korea**

### **5.1 Essential approaches for the model: value-based management planning**

In this section, the research refers to the issues and challenges identified in Chapters 2 and 4 (summarised in Figure 74) as a starting point in the development of a holistic management planning model, drawing upon those international approaches (Chapter 2) that would be suitable in the Korean context described

It is generally accepted that in recent years the main focus of Archaeological Resource Management has moved away from simple 'resources based management' (Hall and McArthur, 1998, 54) and towards 'value based management' (e.g. Demas 2000, 27-56) (Chapter 2). While 'resource-based' management places a focus on sustaining the tangible dimension of an archaeological resource, often through physical protection, 'values-based' management focuses on the tangible and intangible meaning and use of the resource, and incorporates diverse values. In terms of values, this represents a broadening of the range of values from those conceived solely by professionals, to an emphasis on values formed by different stakeholders (including the public). Obviously, the issues and challenges are often both complicated and dynamic, to the extent that they reflect the diversity of stakeholders' interests. In this context, a management plan is a tool with which to help make decisions that sustain and reflect the diverse values imbued within archaeological resources.

Thus a 'management plan' can be defined as:

- 1) *The process of understanding diverse and dynamic values of an archaeological resource, including the discovery of traditional values and the identification of contemporary values.*
- 2) *A tool for decision making that is necessary in order to protect physical and non-physical dimensions*
- 3) *A vehicle to set up the policies and strategies to practice the aim and purpose*
- 4) *The strategies for promoting and (re)creating the values held by different stakeholders, from the professionals to the public. These strategies will be based on conservation work.*

Based on this definition, the management plan model in this research has three major approaches: participatory planning, the transparent assessment of values, and defined strategies for conservation and interpretation.

Context	Topic	Issues	Transformation of Perceptible issues			Challenges in South Korea	Context in a holistic model
Stakeholder (Subject)	Who	By whom	Administrative power & professionals	→	Institutional & the public	Deliberate exclusion of possible stakeholders Empowering groups of professionals Top-down decision-making by empowering professionals & the government	Participatory management planning
		For whom	Limited people	→	General public	Unbalanced professionals' understanding about the public' benefit between the real and idea A management plan for an administrative management tool regardless of public's interest No opportunities for the public in decision-making	
	Why	Ownership	Physical ownership (private property)	→	Intellectual ownership (public property)	Conflicts between private ownership and public ownership. Predetermined vision, aim and purpose in management planning.	
		Identity	Maintaining	→	(re)formation & (re)creation	Ambiguous conceptions for vision, aim and purpose in management planning Generic vision, aim and purpose	

Values (Object)	What	Values	Traditional value	→	Traditional + Contemporary values	Traditional values based No rational assessment system for diverse value	Transparent assessment of diverse value for sound decision- making
		Authenticity	Physical integrity	→	Diversity	Deficient discussion for conception of authenticity Unsound assessing of authenticity	
	How	Presentation & Interpretation	Ambiguous conceptions	→	Defined conceptions	Non site-specific management approaches stemming from the absence of the logical process for strategic management approaches	
		Interpretation & Education	Presenting physical remains	→	Interpreting values for Education	Accessibility to archaeological sites	

Figure 74: Issues and challenges in South Korean approached against international trends

### 5.1.1 Participatory planning process for the understanding of values

The main idea underpinning value-based management is an understanding of diverse and dynamic values. In same context, the most critical issue in value-based management planning is the participatory planning process that is necessary in order to understand such values. This is because the values' diversity and dynamism is imparted through those stakeholders who are associated with the resources in various ways; heritage is 'an essentially collective and public notion' (Mason 1988, 3). Ideally all of these values, even if some of them are negative or controversial, are an important matter for consideration in the management plan. In this context, a management plan begins by reflecting on diverse voices from relevant people or groups who actually own them, or otherwise intellectually share the ownership right (see Chapter 2.2). For this reason, many management planning models also emphasise the relationship between stakeholders and resources; for instance, the strategic planning model by Hall and McArthur (1998, 16) sets up the planning framework concerning stakeholders and resources as the first step (e.g. Gluck *et al.* 1980; Reed 1992). Thus, the first step of management planning must be the identification of stakeholders and their demands. This step can provide information necessary in order to set up site-specific goals, aims and purposes.

However, the participatory planning process is unlikely to be a process in which all stakeholders equally take part in all matters of planning. The stakeholders have different relationships and associations with any given archaeological site,



and this difference can be used to define different roles in management planning. For instance, as shown in Chapter 2.2.1, groups of professionals and institutional or administrative powers played an important role in managing sites; a role in which they continue to participate. On the other hand, attention has been drawn to the emergence of values that results from the interaction between stakeholders and resources in the modern conception of Archaeological Resource Management. The role of a management plan, therefore, has been transformed such that it has 'a potential for the resolution and reduction of conflicts' between stakeholders (Alexander 1999, 16). In order to address this diverse and dynamic nature of values in an archaeological site, professionals have attempted the categorisation of 'stakeholders' (e.g. Howard 2003 104: Owners, Insiders, Governments, and Academics), and also suggested possible methodologies to gather public perspectives; for instance, Hall and MacArthur (1998, 49) suggest media advertisements; hotlines (i.e. trained personnel to deal with enquiries); public meetings (general and specific); focus group discussions; surveys; polling; and information sheets. While these approaches to participatory planning take time and increase costs, they are necessary for a plan to be fully implementable.

In fact, in recent years the public awareness about diverse and dynamic values and the recognition of the public as important stakeholders in management planning have increased in South Korea; however there continues to be an imbalance between awareness and practice. In a broad sense, such an imbalance

underpins the South Korean issues and challenges inherent in management planning which were identified in Chapter 4; in particular, the issues and challenges related to 'Who', are directly related to this imbalance (Figure 47).

South Korean professionals in the field of Archaeological Resource Management acknowledge the importance of the public in managing archaeological resources, in terms of their role as an important stakeholder, with the local public - in particular - regarded as key. In this light, the appropriate power to make decisions in management planning (e.g. Chapter 4.3.1 By whom) and benefit formed by the planning (e.g. Chapter 4.3.2 For whom) should be given to the public, but, in reality, the planning process is still conducted according to the government and professional-led framework in isolation from the general public (e.g. Figure 46)

Having been conducted by professionals and local and national government officials, the management plans make little recourse to a process that reflects the public's thinking, as was the case for *Jeongokri* plan 2003. Even in archaeological excavations, decision-making power is concentrated in academic and governmental domains by the closed nature of the process (e.g. see Figure 45)

In terms of the issues and challenges related to ownership and identity, participatory planning is an underpinning approach. As a result of the imbalance of the public awareness in the practice of managing archaeological resources in South Korea, management plans have ambiguous and unfeasible vision, aims

and purposes – indeed, predetermined vision and aims and purposes (see Chapter 4.4.1.1). An archaeological site potentially has different issues and challenges depending on its circumstances. These circumstances do not just mean the physical condition of a site, but also the public's thinking, feeling and opinion in relation to the site. Not surprisingly, the vision, aims and purposes of management should address such site-specific contextual factors, including both aspects. Due to the absence of participatory planning in South Korea, however, vision, aims and purpose are often set up in a biased or generic way in South Korea, in particular building them up without considering people (stakeholders) (see Chapter 4.4.2).

A participatory management planning process is one way of dealing with such issues and challenges in South Korea caused by imbalance of the public and archaeological sites. This does not mean, however, that all relevant people take part in the planning process, nor that all their opinions have to be incorporated into a management plan. Rather, it means adequate participation, with different roles allocated to management planning depending on the stakeholders. This is necessary because different stakeholders have different values, such as the broadly traditional values of professionals, and the contemporary values of the general public. Moreover, they have different intentions when it comes to taking part in the planning process: some will be proactive, others reactive, and others medium-active, as well as incorporating negative and positive attitudes to the archaeological site. Thus, the role of management plan is, the definition 1) above,

to define different stakeholders depending on the relationship between them and an archaeological site – type of stakeholders. In this research, the holistic management planning model will attempt to define different types of stakeholders and to address their roles in the management process. In doing so, this research aims to find an appropriate path towards participatory management planning in South Korea.

### **5.1.2 Assessment of diverse values for decision making**

The purpose of participatory management planning is to reflect the diverse values of the different stakeholders in the management planning process in general. It is, however, somewhat different to dealing equally with all the values associated with an archaeological site. This is because, in particular, the stakeholder's formation of socio-economic value is very dynamic; sometimes, the issues and challenges in management planning may even be escalated by conflicts within such divergent values. If the participatory process facilitates the identification of issues and challenges within diverse values, the management plan should suggest approaches to resolve such issues and challenges. For this reason, Mason (2002) argued that a management plan is 'a decision making tool' (Mason, 2002) in value-based management planning. In order to make sound decisions, in other words, to select appropriate management approaches to issues and challenges, the diverse values that relate to any given archaeological site should be 'assessed' and 'prioritised'. Not surprisingly, this process should be rational and transparent.

In light of the tangible dimension of an archaeological resource, this is not a completely novel conception. The concept of assessment has long been a critical part of protecting archaeological resources in the field of conservation. For instance, the assessment of the physical condition of the archaeological resource has played an important role in decisions regarding conservation treatment, such as which materials and techniques to use. The *Athens Charter* (1931) and the *Venice Charter* (1964) represent milestones in the field of conservation and Archaeological Resource Management, emphasising the importance of authentic materials and techniques. With the modern conception of conservation or management, such as the value-based approach, a major concern has been the extension of the physical to the non-physical dimension, from tangible to intangible, and from traditional value to socio-economic value (e.g. see Chapter 2.4.1). In addition, the sophisticated appraisal of diverse values for transparent decision-making has been an important topic in the field of Archaeological Resource Management. This means that the assessment includes appraisal of values on the basis of condition, as well as understanding the role of the public in forming values, including - and especially - socio-economic value.

It appears to be the case that in South Korea, it is recognized that any given archaeological site has diverse values, but that much of the decision-making process nevertheless relies heavily on limited values. For this reason the rational and transparent assessment of diverse values is necessary in management planning in South Korea. However, it does not mean that all values should be

equally considered and reflected in the management planning process. Rather, the participatory planning takes as its starting point the identification of diverse values. Based on this identification, the plan can then make transparent and rational decisions. This sound decision making process is an 'assessment' of values in management planning. In South Korea, although some efforts towards rational decision making have been made such as those within three legal framework in the *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* and *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, it is difficult to conclude that this framework rationally addresses the diversity and dynamic of values that should be brought to bear. Decisions are still made based on traditional values in accordance with the tangible dimension of an archaeological site (see Chapter 4.5.1.1), and the socio-economic value is not fully understood by decision makers (see Chapter 4.5.1.2). As a result, specific evaluations, such as those relating to authenticity, are not carried out explicitly (see Chapter 4.5.2), and - as a result - the results that emerge from the plan are dubious. The underpinning conception of these issues and challenges is an absence of rational and transparent assessment of drivers and dynamic values underlying any given archaeological site.

Thus, the holistic management-planning model will include the assessment of diverse values for the decision-making framework. The definition 2) and 3) of the management plan of this research, mentioned above, means that the decision should be made on the basis of an understanding of diverse types of value, from

the traditional value of tangible dimensions, to the socio-economic value of intangible dimensions. In addition, the decisions made in this context, often, relate to the selection of appropriate approaches. Accordingly, the assessment will offer the foundations for developing management policy and strategy. However, these ideas might not be an epochal work. Some scholars and organizations have suggested methodologies for conducting the assessment, such as Statement Significance or the categorisation of values of archaeological resources (see Chapter 2.4.1) as a standard of the assessment. With regard to categorisation, differences between regions, societies and even archaeological resources, should be taken into account. This research, therefore, attempts to set up a new assessment for the South Korean situation. In addition, the assessment should be logically driven by the goals and aims contained within the management plan's mission statement, and should produce management strategies in order to make the plan fully operative. The assessment criteria in this research will cover quantitative and qualitative analysis of values, as well as the physical condition of the resources

### 5.1.3 Defined management strategies

The assessment of values helps setting up management strategies which cover conservation strategies, protection strategies and interpretation strategies. It can be said that the conservation strategies are the principles for the conservation work, and that it is possible to decide on these during the assessment. In many cases, an archaeological site is a complex of multiple layers of remains from the

past, which was built, erected or formed by different times and people, and for different purposes. Although all of the remains of the site might be valuable, the issue underlined in the management plan is that it is almost impossible to protect all of these different remains. Therefore, assessment, including assessment of tangible and intangible components and values, is necessary for decision-making, and on this basis conservation strategies may be then outlined.

Authenticity is one of the most important considerations for conservation strategies. At a glance, one could say that all conservation work and protection work is a process of protecting the authenticity of archaeological resources, though, of course, it is more complicated than this. Conservation is inevitably closely related to authenticity, and this intertwinement has a long history; extending from the *Athens Charter* in 1931 to the *Nara Document* in 1994.

Within recent discussions of authenticity, the emphasis has been placed on diversity and intangible dimensions. For instance, the *Nara Conference* in 1994, which is a milestone in conservation studies related to authenticity, stressed that an understanding of authenticity varies according to region, culture and society with regard to the tangible and intangible aspects. Consequently, some scholars argued the importance of the public as decision makers for authenticity (see Chapter 4.5.2). Authenticity is not a matter of materials or technique for conservation work; it is also related to the public's perception of an archaeological resource, which is clearly not a case of deciding whether something is authentic or inauthentic.



The context of protection strategies partly overlaps with that of interpretation strategies. In general, protection can be defined as the 'follow-up work of conservation', such as maintaining the condition that is achieved by conservation work (see Chapter 5.2.3). Accordingly, it may be set up with the conservation strategies, while it is also closely interrelated with the presentation of a resource. Thus, protection strategies are not separately set up, but are produced in combination with conservation and interpretation strategies. It can also be said that protection strategies are closely linked with interpretation strategies. With changing trends in Archaeological Resource Management, for instance from 'resource-based' to 'value-based', or from the protection to the use of archaeological resources, the purposes and aims of managing archaeological sites has also been extended – from physical conservation to interpretation of values, including presentation, education, recreation, and tourism. Interpretation strategies should cover these issues, and protection strategies should include adequate approaches that cross-cut conservation and interpretation strategies.

Another reason for the importance of interpretation is the necessity of gaining justification for the management plan, in order to best protect the resources with the support of the public. In the modern conception of value-based management, interpretation does not mean simply showing and delivering a certain piece of information to a site's visitors; rather, it is a process of valuation by communication. For instance, Hall and MacArthur (1996, 25) defined it as 'a means of communicating ideas and feelings that helps people enrich their

understanding and appreciation of the world'. Throughout the process of interpretation, values which are already formed can be discovered, changed, (re)formed, shaped, and even (re)created. When information and values are received by the public, especially associated stakeholders, they react positively or negatively. All of these reactions are involved in the process of value formation associated with an archaeological resource; they may impact on the effectiveness of the management plan in the reviewing process as a form of feedback, as well as driving new management plans for the resources in question.

## 5.2 Essential issues for a holistic management planning model

In order move forward in this research without confusion, this part attempts to define some key terms. Although most of the terms in this part have been used in the field of Archaeological Resource Management for a long time, some of them have been differently defined depending on the scholars and professionals concerned. For this reason, the terminology is necessarily redefined to develop a holistic management planning model for South Korea. The definition in this part is likely to be a mediated idea through the review of established ideas, rather than a novel conception. The terminology, here, is a basic means of building the planning model for South Korea (Chapter 6).

### 5.2.1 Resource, value, significance and heritage

These definitions of the key terms should, perhaps, be regarded as the foundations leading to a discussion of topics related to Archaeological Resource Management more broadly. For this reason, there has been much debate about the definition of heritage (e.g. Carman 2002), and these discussions and debates have attempted to define the terms in relation to their conceptions. Often, 'heritage' is defined as '*something(s) that person(s) want to keep or protect*' (Hall and MacArthur 1998, 4) in a broad sense. However, 'heritage' in this research means something(s) that *persons or groups of persons* want to keep, safeguard or protect, rather than personal heritage which an individual might be interested in achieving this for. This definition leads to the vital question: why do they want to keep and protect something? It is generally accepted that people want to keep and protect something because that thing is important and meaningful. The terms 'importance' and 'meaning' can be replaced by the term '*value*' in the field of Archaeological Resource Management. Thus, heritage can be defined as '*something that a group of persons want to keep and protect because they believe that it is valuable*' in general. In other words, heritage means a complex of physical objects and intellectual values; heritage is a subset of resources that are defined by values. Conversely, the term 'resource' means something that does not have value yet, but may become heritage in the future by acquiring value. In other words, resource means *something that has the potential to be*

*valuable to people*. When value is given or granted to a resource, it becomes heritage (see Figure 75).

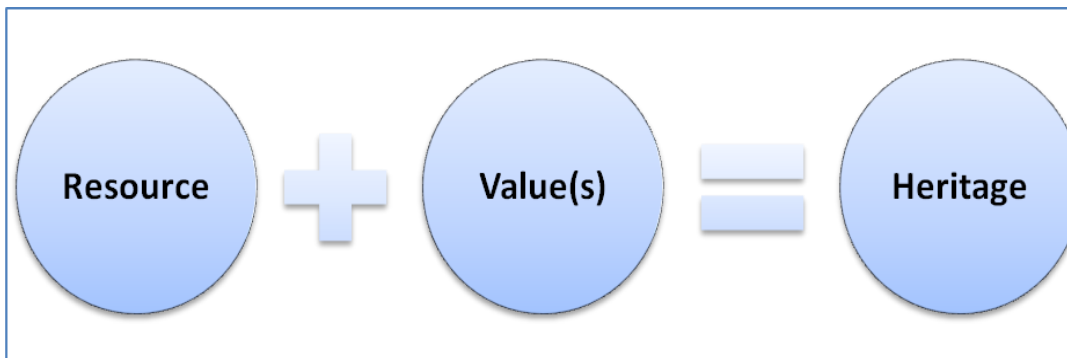


Figure 75: Brief conception of resource, value and heritage

In this relationship between 'resource' and 'heritage', another 'significance' represents another key term. In a general sense, it can be understood as a set of values that are significantly more important and meaningful; this *significance* refers to the '*nexus of values*'. The reason for understanding significance as a set of values is that the values related to archaeological resources are very diverse depending on the characteristics of the resources and the people who are associated with them. The question is, then, how to decide on the significance. The common answer is the assessment of value and its prioritization (Cleere 1984, 127; Lipe 1984, 1); Mason (2002) and de la Torre and Mason (2002) have addressed a management plan as a decision making tool (see Chapter 2.4.2). In terms of such assessment and prioritization, it is likely to help understanding a hierarchy system in designation in conceptual context (see Figure 76). Given the definition of 'resource' that has been put forward above, most archaeological remains can be regarded as resources due to their potential. Registered or listed archaeological remains are those archaeological resources which have the

greater potential to become heritage, through values that are not yet fully identified, discovered, shaped, and formed. Among the registered or listed resources, the resources for which values are discovered and assessed can be regarded as 'heritage'. As a result of this assessment, the values of those resources that prove to be significant can become 'Designated Heritage'. In a system of hierarchy, management planning is a useful tool to assess, as well as to protect, enhance and promote values.

In spite of the importance of such definitions, there has been little discussion surrounding them in South Korea due to the infancy of the field; as a result, comprehensive principles for managing archaeological resource are still ambiguous in South Korea (see Chapter 4.2). One of the examples of this ambiguity is the terminology in the South Korean legal system. *The Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*, which is the first legal framework to have been enacted, covers cultural and natural heritage though it only refers to the former by name. In addition, there has been no attempt to define the terms 'resource' or 'heritage'. Instead, it seems that 'heritage' has been used as an all-embracing word; for instance, the Act uses 'heritage', rather than 'resource' or 'property', to indicate all types of cultural things. The Act categorised heritage into 'Tangible Cultural Heritage/Intangible Cultural Heritage/Monument/Folk Resource' (Article 2 Definition).

4. Folklore resources: Customs or traditions related to food, clothing, housing, trades, religion, annual, observances, etc., and clothing, implements, houses, etc. used therefor which are essential for understanding changes to the life of nationals. (Article 2 (Definition)-4).

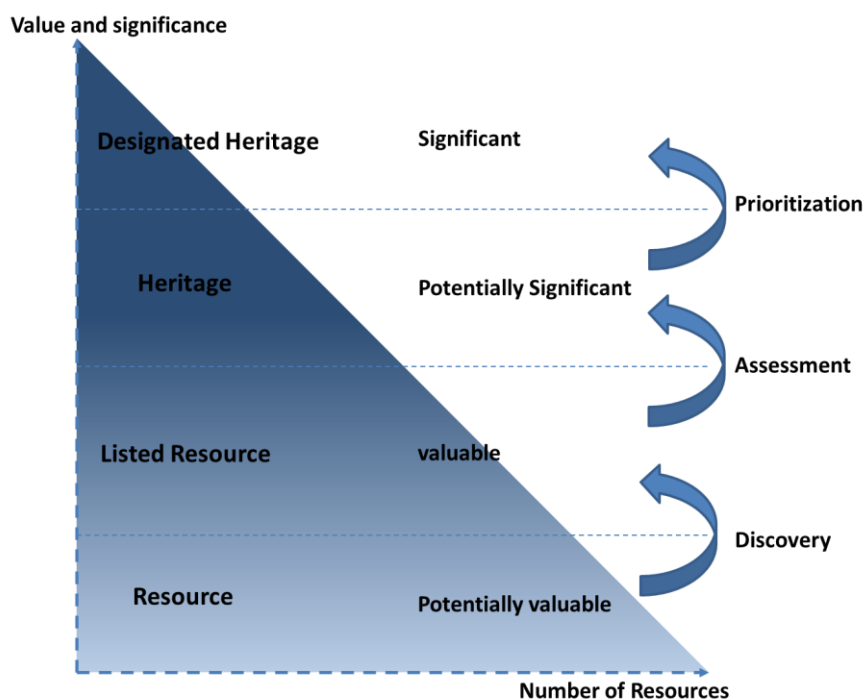


Figure 76: Brief conception of Heritage and Resource by value and significance

Although there is no precise definition regarding ‘resources’ in the Act, it can be understood as a term that indicates a subordinate conception of heritage in the context of the Act. The Act categorises designated heritage into three different levels depending on their administrative district<sup>9</sup>. The term ‘resource’ is used to

<sup>9</sup> South Korea divided into 8 provinces (*do* 도/道), 1 special autonomous province (*teukbyeol jachido* 특별자치도/特別自治道), 6 metropolitan cities (*gwangyeoksi* 광역시/廣域市), and 1 special city (*teukbyeolsi* 특별시/特別市). These are further subdivided into a variety of smaller entities, including cities (*si* 시/市), counties (*gun* 군/郡), districts (*gu* 구/區), towns (*eup* 읍/邑), townships (*myeon* 면/面), neighborhoods (*dong* 동/洞) and villages (*ri* 리/里).

address locally designated heritage, as in 'Cultural Heritage Resource', which is '*Cultural heritage designated by a Mayor/Do Governor pursuant to Article 70 (2) among those not designated pursuant to subparagraph 1 or 2* (Article 2). All the 28 references to 'resource' in the Act refers such subordinate conception.

The reason why this research attempts to define these terms is twofold: to make up conceptual ground in South Korea, as well as to lead the holistic management planning model effectively. This terminology is closely related to setting up management approaches in planning. Recently, for instance, the use of archaeological sites for the public has drawn more attention, as well as enhancing site's protection in South Korea. Therefore, all management plans have 'enhancement' or 'promotion' of values of a site as an important goal, and set up the approaches to achieve them. This goal of a management plan can depend on the status of a site. For a site that is already recognized as 'heritage', the enhancement or promotion of its values often means that the significance of a site is interpreted and presented to the public writ large. By contrast, a site with 'resource' status may become 'heritage' through discovering values using the potential of the site. Accordingly, the management approaches should be set up differently.

### 5.2.2 Archaeological boundaries: sites, surroundings, and landscapes

Perhaps, there are a number of ways to define the scale of archaeological resources; for instance, Burra Charter defined the terms, *object*, *related object*,

*setting, place, related place* and *association* as the intellectual spatial scale (Australia ICOMOS 2013, Article 1). Given the South Korean terminology, these three terms, *site, surrounding and landscape*, are useful terminology for managing archaeological resources, and this research will also usefully use these terms for building up the holistic management planning model in the next chapter. In a broad sense, the term 'site', is generally understood to mean a piece of ground used for a particular purpose. In this context, the 'archaeological site' can be defined as *a place that human beings used for their life with artefacts, such as a shelter, dwelling, building, or a complex of buildings for settlement*; The identification of the boundary of an archaeological site is an important step, because the boundary is both the direct target and the goal of the management plan. However, the nature of buried archaeological sites is that their location is often invisible, as such is difficult to identify the boundary. Nevertheless, the boundary of archaeological sites should be identified in the course of setting up management approaches. Decisions regarding project feasibility, such as time and budget, can also be made on the basis of the boundary.

The term, 'surrounding', means a larger and broader space including the archaeological site, in terms of the space scale. It can also be defined in relation to the archaeological site as a place affected by the human being directly, as the surrounding is an area closely or directly related to past human activities, neighbouring an archaeological site. Often as a classic manner for protecting a



site, a buffer zone has been addressed; UNESCO Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of the WH Convention stated that,

*..... purposes of effective protection of the nominated property, a buffer zone is an area surrounding the nominated property which has complementary legal and/or customary restrictions placed on its use and development to give an added layer of protection to the property. This should include the immediate setting of the nominated property, important views and other areas or attributes that are functionally important as a support to the property and its protection (Article 104).*

The South Korean legal system also defines an area of a certain distance from the administrative boundary (e.g. designated boundary) of a site as a 'Protection of Preservation Areas of Historic and Cultural Environment' and only restricted activities are allowed in this area (*Cultural Heritage Protection Act* 1962 Article 13); this area amounts to 500m from a State-designated site and 300m from a Provincial-designated site. However, a definition based purely on physical distance, without an adequate understanding of landscape, is likely to be problematic. As seen in the UNESCO Operational Guidelines above, it should be defined considering physical relationship and emotional or intellectual factors such as function, land use or view. 'Landscape' covers the complex of artificial remains of human beings and the natural environment as the largest spatial concept; it may relate to the location of an archaeological site in a certain

position. It is likely to be difficult to define in the manner of drawing line on a map. Rather it is likely to be a conceptual boundary; the European Landscape Convention defined 'landscape as 'an area, as perceived by people, whose character is the result of the action and interaction of natural and/or human factors' (Council of Europe 2000, Article 1).

In spite of the difficulty of identifying the boundary of a site, surroundings and landscape, the reason for this distinction is to set up the feasible and workable management approaches in planning. In the early days of Archaeological Resource Management, the major target of the management was archaeological artefacts, and then the scope broadened out to include the site. Recently, attention has been drawn to the importance of the landscape surrounding the site, such as the historic environment. The spatial scale that management approaches and strategies use has been also broadened. For instance, a presentation approach should address the significance of an archaeological site, such as a traditional value of the site, and an interpretation approach should be covered the values that are formed by the people such as a contemporary value. The strategies for the use of an archaeological site, which is an important issue in South Korea, should be set up with an understanding of the neighbouring area. Thus, the definitions here are the foundations for setting up management approaches and strategies in the holistic management planning approach outlined in Chapter 6.

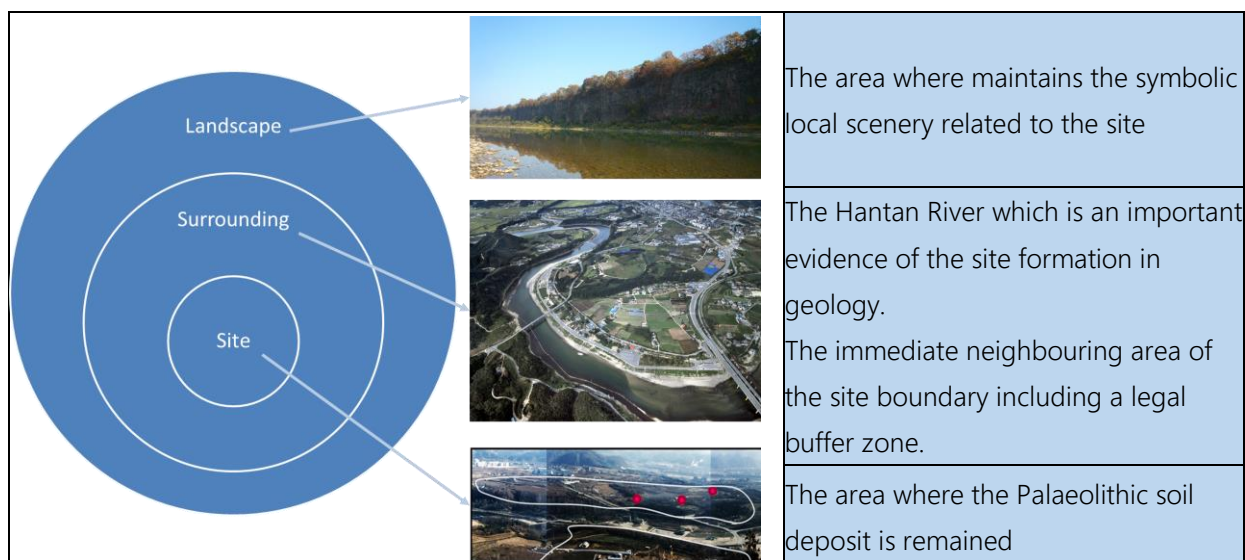


Figure 77: Conception of Artefact, Site, Surroundings and Landscape in *Jeongokri*

### 5.2.3 Conservation and protection

In general, the terms 'conservation,' 'protection' and 'preservation' have been used in the same or a similar context in the field of Archaeological Resource Management and related fields; for instance, activities to keep, retain and maintain the original condition of 'WHAT'. As the field of Archaeological Resource Management has developed, the concepts 'conservation plan' and 'management plan' have been distinguished; for example, according to English Heritage (e.g. Clark 1999b), the conservation plan is the logical process of understanding and assessing the significance of a site, and of deciding policies and guidelines to retain that site's significance. The specific strategies and actions that make up the management plan follow on from the conservation plan. In other words, 'the Conservation Plan can be the first stage of the Management Plan, but not vice versa' (Clark 1999a, xxiv; Alexander 1999, 1). The Getty Conservation Institute used the term 'conservation' in a narrow sense, as

'physical intervention or treatment specifically'. It refers to the more technically oriented functions of the broader field. The Getty Conservation Institute also defined it in a broad sense, 'signifying the entire field or realm of cultural heritage preservation, from academic inquiry and historical research to policy making to planning to technical intervention' (this meaning is akin to the American notion of 'historic preservation') (Avrami *et al*/2000, 1). In these contexts, 'Conservation' generally has a narrow application: the pre-phase of the management plan or, narrowly, the physical intervention and treatment.

Thus, this research intends to adopt the following narrow definition, whereby 'conservation' means '*all activities involved in keeping, maintaining, and retaining the original form or shape of the site or setting, which was defined in the previous section* (Chapter 5.2.2). *The activities include new materials and techniques as well as traditional ones.*' On the other hand, 'protection' has a much broader application, including, for example, the protection of the landscape, which was defined in the previous chapter. It also means *all activities and strategies involved in conserving archaeological resources and managing the values and significance of a resource. Accordingly, 'managing' includes everything from maintaining a resource to enhancing.* According to these definitions, the management plan encompasses the conservation activities and the protection strategies (Figure 78). The reason for attempting to define the terms is to contribute to building up the local management strategies and

approaches within the temporal and spatial scale of archaeological resources, in order to arrive at a holistic management planning model in a later chapter.

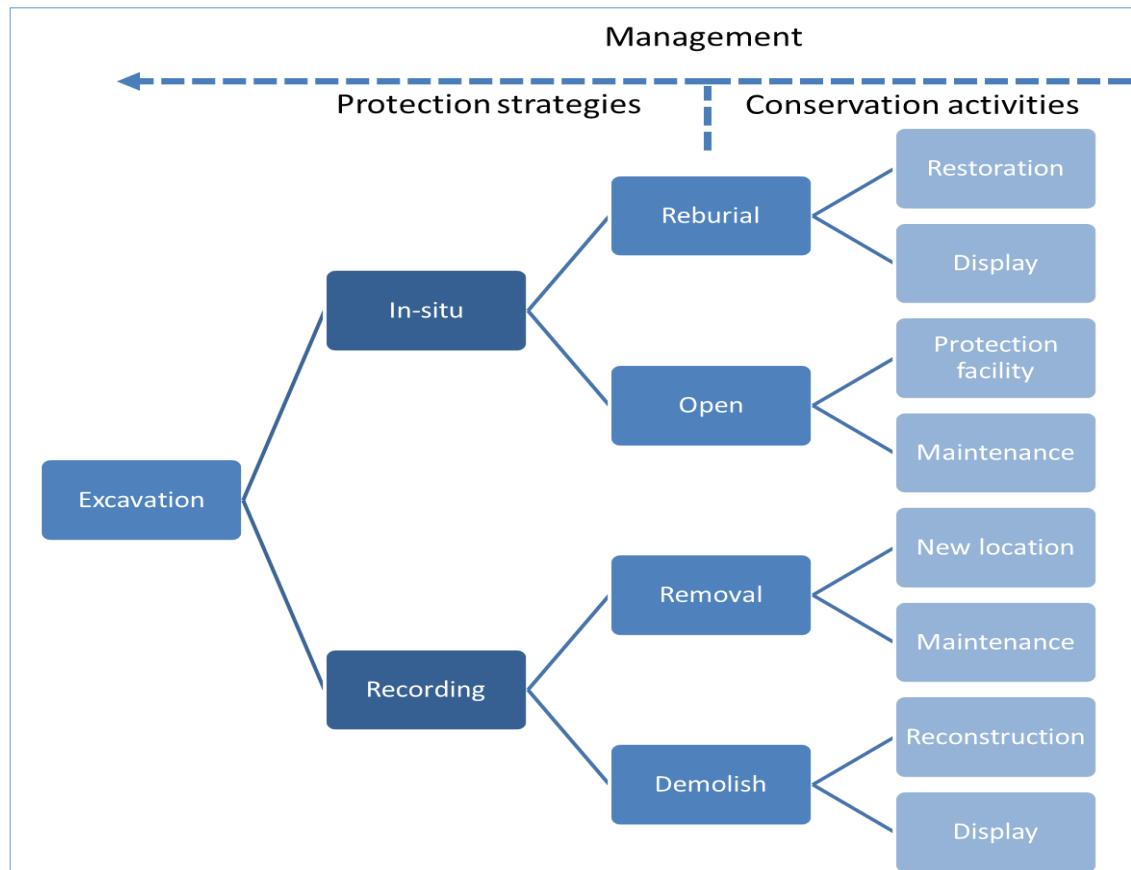


Figure 78: An example of protection strategies and conservation activities in an excavated site in a management plan

The reason for attempting to define these terms precisely is to lead management planning from a logical point of departure. Not surprisingly, an archaeological site has a number of dynamic issues and challenges that a management plan should deal with (e.g. see Chapter 3). In order for sound decision-making, the protection strategies lead the conservation activities against issues and challenges on a site. It seems to be very fair and easily carried out, in fact, but this is often not the case in practice (see Chapter 4.6). For instance, a buried archaeological site often involves an archaeological excavation as an essential

part of management planning. The information yielded by the excavation contributes to the discovery of the values of the site, and these values are assessed in order to arrive at the excavated values. Sound protection strategies are required that can lead onto conservation activities as a feasible and workable approach. Where archaeological excavations have the potential to damage or otherwise impact on resources, one of the conflict issues in an archaeological excavation is the post treatment of an excavated site. There are some possible options such as *in-situ*, partly *in-situ*, reburial and removal. However, such a decision should be made only from a perspective of fully understanding the values of a site, including the physical integrity of excavated remains. In addition, this decision requires further conservation activities to be defined, in order to protect the site on account of the fragility of buried archaeological sites. It means that the decisions about how work should proceed should be made at the interface of protection strategies and conservation activities. For instance, *Sosadong* site was proven to be significantly important site in South Korea in the course of its excavation. For rescue archaeology, it is often impossible to protect the whole excavated site *in-situ*, so that a part of the site was instead preserved *in-situ*, however this was followed by presentation issues. Throughout the discussion with stakeholders, CHA, an excavation team (KIOH) and developers, the in situ part was developed as a public part, with plans to install a small display facility in a neighbouring school. In the meantime, the excavated Bronze Age houses have been reburied and distinguished by the selected trees which

do not have deep roots and have short heights. At the same time, the remainder of the site was recorded by 3-D scanning techniques (see Chapter 3.2). All decisions at *Sosadong* were led by the first protection strategy, partly *in-situ*.

#### 5.2.4 Presentation and Interpretation

Since Tilden (1997) defined the term 'interpretation', a number of alternative definitions have been proposed by experts and organisations (Hall and MacArthur 1998, 165-7). In spite of their differences, most definitions emphasize 'interpretation' as an activity, process, communication, or else an effort to reveal, help, create, or enrich diverse meanings, significance, relationships, and understanding of archaeological resources. For instance, the Burra Charter defined 'interpretation' very comprehensively: '*Interpretation means* all the ways of presenting the *cultural significance of a place*' (Australia ICOMOS 1999, Article 1.17), while the ICOMOS Charter for the Interpretation and Presentation of Cultural Heritage Sites (ICMAH 2008) defined it as 'the full range of potential activities intended to heighten public awareness and enhance understanding of cultural heritage sites'. In this research, the same comprehensive definition will be used: interpretation is '*all the planned or intended series of activities involved in delivering the diverse values of archaeological resources to a wide range of people*'. On the other hand, the term 'presentation' has a narrower meaning or definition than is the case for interpretation. For instance, ICOMOS defined it as 'the carefully planned communication of interpretive content through the

arrangement of interpretive information, physical access, and interpretive infrastructure at a cultural heritage site' (ICMAH 2008, 2).

The reason for distinguishing interpretation and presentation is to suggest feasible and workable management approaches against the issues and challenges that an archaeological site confronts. According to the definitions above, interpretation is usually related to issues and challenges that require a longer time to deal with, while presentation is likely to present immediate issues and challenges. The management approaches suggested by the holistic management-planning model should be reviewed and evaluated over time. If the approaches to be followed are not defined conceptually, the specific time frame is also difficult to address in practice. Thus, the definitions of interpretation and presentation are helpful in that they effectively foreshadow management planning.

#### 5.2.5 Stakeholders

According to recent trends, the most important concept in value-based management is that of the 'stakeholder'. 'Stakeholders' are generally defined as *'persons who are interested in and associated with an archaeological resource'*. In fact, such a broad definition is not especially helpful when it comes to management planning, because the stakeholders are both very ambiguous and too diverse. Hence, some scholars have categorised the stakeholders in different ways in order to clearly identify diverse stakeholders: Howard (2003, 73), for instance, divides 'stakeholders' into 'Owners, Insider, Governments, and



Academics' (see Chapter 5.1.1), and Demas (2000, 31) suggested more specific stakeholders in terms of management planning: 'governmental agencies, archaeologists and other researchers, groups with an affinity or ancestral relationship, local community members, private tourists, and specialized tourists'.

In any sense, stakeholders can be re-defined as *persons or institution(s) who take part in the management planning or are affected by the plan directly or indirectly* in terms of management planning; the categories of stakeholders can be defined by the extent of their association with the archaeological resource and, from a more practical view, the role or the extent of their participation in the planning. However, the key stakeholders are necessarily different depending on the types of resource and their location (such as the regional location), the type of a site and its circumstances. Thus, this research attempts to suggest some sub-categories of stakeholder for a holistic management planning model for South Korea, as set out in Figure 79. However, a certain stakeholder is not just affiliated to one stakeholder; sometimes stakeholders might overlap in terms of their position or role.

	Definition	Example	Role in planning
<b>Government</b>	The organization that has administrative responsibility.	Local and national government officials & bureaucracy	Initiating the management plan, such as client of plan Financial support Administrative responsibility

<b>Resource Manager</b>	The person who is actually managing the resource	Appointed governmental officials NGOs, Individuals	Daily management and maintenance of resource
<b>Insider-Academic</b>	The scholars or institution(s) who are conducting research on the resources	Experts related to the resource Excavation Unit	Offering resource-specific information as a professional
<b>Outsider-Academic</b>	The people who have an academic interest in, and the scholars who conduct studies of, the related resources	Scholars involved in the investigation Organisations carrying out the investigation	Advising Offering relevant information in some general way
<b>Insider</b>	The individual or group of people who are directly related to, or have a close interest in, the resources, but who are not academic professionals	Landlords Local communities Local educational organizations Local historic groups	Form contemporary values
<b>Outsider</b>	People who may become Insiders	Visitors	Passively accept and contribute the diverse values in part

Figure 79: Definitions of stakeholders for the holistic model

#### 5.2.5.1 *Government*

In South Korea, there are few cases in which a management plan was initiated by private bodies. As seen in Chapter 4.3, management planning in South Korea has traditionally been organised and initiated by the government, that is, by the local government that has administrative responsibility for managing resources. Not surprisingly, the government is always a major stakeholder in management planning with respect to the initiation of planning, taking on the role of client and providing the financial support for the planning and the future management

actions by the plan under the rubric of administrative responsibility. From this point of view, the Government as a stakeholder in the management plan can be divided into multiple stakeholders: the national government, provincial and local Government. In terms of the designation system, each government is responsible for managing nationally, provincially and locally designated archaeological resources. In the South Korean administrative system, the national governmental body related to managing archaeological resources is the Cultural Heritage Administration (CHA), and CHA is most powerful stakeholder in management planning, for instance their approval of a plan is necessary for its implementation, while a considerable proportion of the budget for doing so is granted by CHA. The role of local or provincially government is self-representation as a stakeholder in management planning. In particular, in cases of buried archaeological sites, CHA is the most powerful decision maker, because all archaeological excavation in the field is dependent upon permission by CHA.

With this typical of those stakeholders representing the Government, some institutes established by the government play a role on behalf the role of government. For instance, in *Jeongokri*, Jeongok Prehistoric Site Management Office, which is a part of the local government (Yeonchongun) has responsibility for managing the site; in addition, the Jeongok Prehistoric Museum has played an important role in the management of *Jeongokri*, as the provincial governmental body from the time the museum was built (in 2004). Although, in a legal framework, THE CHA is still the governmental organisation that is

ultimately responsible on a national level, because *Jeongokri* is a nationally designated site (National Historic Site No. 264), the daily management activities are carried out by the both office and museum which represent the local and provincial government respectively. Such multiple organisations that are co-dependent on the regional governmental levels may nevertheless incorporate different interests in the management of Jeongokri site. In this light, management planning is one means of dealing with such potentially competing interests.

#### 5.2.5.2 *Resource Manager*

In a general sense, the 'Manager' can be defined as the person(s) or institute who carries out the daily management activities on an archaeological site. However, the definition of a resource manager is dependent on the location of the archaeological resources in question, and stakeholders can take on multiple positions or roles in the management of a site. In a South Korean context, Government and Manager are often positions occupied by the same stakeholders. For instance, in the case of nationally designated archaeological resources, the government appoints the resource manager or management team. The management plan may have already established a management organisation, such as a site-museum. In this case, this organisation may act as the Resource Manager. The field institutes that take charge of managing the site at *Jeongokri*, for example, are the Jeongok Prehistoric Site Management Office (a local government office) and Jeongok Prehistoric Museum (an on-site museum)

established by the provincial government. Moreover, In terms of responsibility for management, owners of archaeological resources may become Resource Manager simply because they are responsible for the protection of the resources. This is one of reasons why the purchase of an archaeological site is a preferred option in South Korea (see Chapter 4.4.1). Many South Korean professionals addressed the discordance of ownership and management responsibility as critical reason for conflict in managing archaeological resources, and suggested purchasing the resources, in this case usually land, as the most effective means of resolution.

In spite of ambiguity of this distinction in South Korea, the primary reason for differentiating the Resource Manager from the Government in management planning is their different roles and interests in management planning. Although some organisations established by governments are obviously a part of the administrative framework, they also carry out real activities on a site that are distinct from administrative responsibilities. For this reason, the Resource Manager may be able to offer a different angle with respect to the management needs of the site. This difference can come from the individual members of the resource management team. The management of sites amounts to professional work such as conservation treatment. Not surprisingly, the membership of the Resource Managers usually consists of a group of experts who have professional skills, but with different interests and stakes in the archaeological site concerned. For this reason, Resource Managers may overlap with the Insider-Academic.

### 5.2.5.3 *Insider-Academic*

Traditionally, archaeological resources rely heavily on historical value, which is one of the typical types of traditional values, and buried archaeological sites have much potential to yield information for this historic value (in other words, it comprises a research value). For such nature of archaeological sites, academics have been an important role in management of the resources. Thus, 'Academic' means the professionals who produce or discover the traditional values or yield information for the value. Among the professionals, 'insider-academic' mean the academic experts who produce resource-specific information in their research or studies. In terms of a buried archaeological site which is a main target of this research, the most classic example would be archaeologists who have taken part in investigation of a site. Due to the typical nature of buried sites, their excavation is essential, and comprises the main task of archaeologists. However, academic research, like management planning, is an interdisciplinary work demanding the cooperation of professionals from diverse fields, and might include archaeologists, conservators, historians, and architects. In terms of management planning, insider-academic means professionals who are involved in academic work in a site and, consequently, have site-specific information and knowledge.

In buried archaeological sites in South Korea, such roles as Insider-Academic has been played by archaeologists. For instance, a classic example of Insider-Academic in *Jeongokri* management planning is the Institute of Cultural

Properties Hanyang University which has carried out archaeological excavations on the site. In same context, the Korea Institute of Heritage (KIOH) is an important Insider-Academic at *Sosadong*. Both institutes commonly hold the majority of archaeological information about the sites through the establishment of long-term archaeological projects. In addition to such archaeological information, the reason why they are important insider-academic is they hold knowledge that extends beyond the archaeological information. For instance, ICPHY has carried out archaeological excavations in *Jeongokri* since 1990s, and has played an important role in *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival. Through such activities, the ICPHY have developed relationships with local communities and government. It means the ICPHY can develop their knowledge of the local public's desires for the site, and can develop an understanding of the local government's stance in relation to it. Such knowledge and experience, and the relationships relevant to the site, are very important for management planning.

Due to such knowledge and experience, and the relationships in relation to *Jeongokri*, the member of the ICPHY appointed as or moved to the Jeongok Prehistoric Site Management Office and *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Museum, which are Government or Resource Manager in terms of stakeholders. While it might be seen as overly closed or exclusive to share stakeholders among this membership, it also means that the insider-academic's information and knowledge is fully utilised in management planning. In order to make up for this, and so as to realise the principles in Chapter 5.1, other stakeholders - out-sider-

academic, insider and outsider - should be defined, and their roles should be clearly addressed.

#### 5.2.5.4 *Outsider-Academic*

In general, 'outsider-academic' can be defined in relation to Insider-Academic. If the Insider-Academic discovers and produces the site-specific values with site-specific archaeological information, the Outsider-Academic includes professionals who also affect the values with a broader context. In other words, the 'Outsider-Academic' includes those scholars who are interested in the archaeological resource. As previously noted, archaeological research and management planning is an interdisciplinary work. In order to identify the values of an archaeological site, knowledge and skills borrowed from other fields is necessary. For instance, archaeologists often take advantage of the historic record - i.e. from the field of History; and buried archaeological sites dating to prehistoric times often use scientific analysis for dating issue. Moreover, the management of archaeological sites employs conservation techniques as an important aspect. In terms of the modern conception of management, the public's notion of a site is a very important factor in making decisions in management. Anthropological approaches to understanding the notion is a critical approach to management planning. The professionals who have relevant knowledge, approaches and techniques are possible Academic as a stakeholder in management planning. Again, 'Insider-Academic can mean those professionals who are directly involved in management planning, 'Outsider-



Academic' comprises a group of professionals who are indirectly involved, and who can give important advice on the basis of their own professional knowledge.

In spite of the site's significance, there are academic issues with the dating of *Jeongokri*, (see Chapter 3.1). Thus, The ICHPY attempted to organize an international seminar about the dating of *Jeongokri* in 2003; the 2<sup>nd</sup> international seminar for the commemoration of *Chongokri (Jeongokri)* site. The idea of this seminar was to open the issue of dating to a wider range of South Korean and international professionals, in order to take advantage of different methods for the dating of the S55E20 put (see Chapter 4.5.2.2). The resulting seminar contributed to the study of the dating issues. With this academic research in place, the 2003 management plan (ICHPY 2003) comprised an advisory group of in six parts: Site Protection, Building Museum, Building Historic Park, Restoring Ecology, City Planning and *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival (ICHPY 2003, 21). These six parts of an advisory group consist of professionals drawn from relevant fields, who contributed useful advice to the management planning process. In terms of relationship with an archaeological site, all these scholars who are associated with *Jeongokri* may be categorised as an Outsider-Academic. In particular, the professionals whose involvement is as members of the advisory group, represent a typical 'Outsider-Academic'.

#### 5.2.5.5 *Insider*

In fact, it is easy to identify those stakeholders in management planning in South Korea noted above, because they have played a role in the management of archaeological sites. By contrast, as seen in issues and challenges in South Korea (see Chapter 3), the public, which means 'Insider' and 'Outsider' here, have not been actively involved in management planning. Consequently the precise definition here remains ambiguous. However, the importance of the public as a key stakeholder has recently grown in importance, particularly in terms of their formation and shaping of those *contemporary values* that are significant in terms of the context of an archaeological site in modern society. In this research, the awareness of the public in management planning must be applied to the principles of a holistic management planning models in Chapter 5.1. In a general sense, it is fair to define the 'Insider' as the person(s), group of people or organisation(s) that take part, directly or indirectly, in the formation of values within the public. In other words, 'Insider' comprises those people who are closely associated (in relative terms) with an archaeological site.

Given the definition of Insider, the local public perhaps comprises the classic example. However, there is also some ambiguity in the identification of the Insider as a stakeholder in management planning. For instance, although Yeoncheongun is a smallest city in Gyeonggi Province, the population is about 45,000 in 2014, or approximately 1% of the Gyeonggi Province, as such it is hard to define every resident as Insider in management planning. Obviously this is

because their degree of association with *Jeongokri* differs. Even if they all are classified as such, it is impossible for each individual to take part in the planning process. Rather, there are locally based communities that are related to *Jeongokri*. For instance, when the *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival was initiated by Professor. Bae and Department of Cultural Anthropology at Hanyang University, the locals who worked on the excavations as labourers gave their support. Moreover, some local community groups, such as Yeoncheon Junior Chamber, Yeoncheon Young Men Club, and Yeoncheon Women Club, have supported the Festival since 1999. In addition to such local resident based community groups, some military units have been involved in the activities at *Jeongokri*. In fact, the whole of Yeoncheongun falls under the protection of military installations due to its location on the border with North Korea (Yeoncheongun webpage). Despite the shared local association of these groups with *Jeongokri*, it is quite possible for them to each have different values, and interests in relation to the site, and to ascribe different meanings to it. Thus, Insider incorporates those people who impact on, and are affected by, the management plan.

#### 5.2.5.6 *Outsider*

By contrast with Insider, in a general sense, 'Outsider' is can refer the people who are farther from an archaeological resource - in terms of relationship with it - than the Insider. It is possible to include large numbers of people in line with this definition. Obviously such ambiguity has limited use when defining the Outsider as a stakeholder in management planning, because it makes it difficult to specify

those stakeholders who might have a voice in the process. In addition, the Outsider is often set up as a target of presentation and interpretation of the values. In order to implement approaches for the presentation and interpretation, the nature of the target (Outsider) should clearly identified, including such aspects as age, gender, interesting, desire and etc. To make planning feasible it is better to define those people who have a pre-existing interest in the archaeological site, and who partly accept the values defined by Academic and Insider, allowing them to partially contribute to the formation of the values of the site. The difference between the Insider and Outsider, in this view, is that the former is actively involved in decision-making in management planning, while the latter is often a target of a management plan, for example the enhancement of the values of a site. For this definition, the visitors are likely to be a classic example. For instance, most management plans in South Korea commonly aim to enhance the site's value for the local economy (e.g. aims, purposes and approaches in the *Jeongokri* management plan 2003 in Figure 52). The number of visitors to a site is widely accepted as a measure of achievement. Increased visitor numbers mean that the significance and values of an archaeological site may be interpreted by and presented to more people. In doing so, visitors spent more money and time, resulting in gains for the local economy.

In this conceptualization of Outsiders as a stakeholder in management planning, the Outsider has the potential to take on the role of Insider in the future. For

instance, *Jeongokri* is undoubtedly an important resource for the local public. At the same time, the site is of international significance, such that *Jeongokri* was designated as National Historic Site No. 264. Thus, it means that the visitors (Outsider) can be transformed into an Insider who is closely associated with the site. The 'association' here is not just about a residential area, encompassing geographically local residents, but represents an intellectual relationship between the people and the site. The enhancement or promotion of values is addressed as an important goal of management plans, through presentation and interpretation, places the transformation of Outsider to Insider at the heart of management approaches. From this point of view, the Outsider can be defined as a potential Insider.

#### 5.2.6 Authenticity and conservation works

Archaeological resources can be distinguished from other resources by being both 'fragile and non-renewable' (ICOMOS and ICAHM 1990, Article 1), while often management or conservation work impacts on such fragile and non-renewable condition of the resources positively or negatively. Accordingly, the authenticity issue has increasingly attracted the attention of professionals, and even of the public. In spite of its importance, authenticity is rarely discussed in South Korea; in fact, the relevant terminology has been used in South Korea in a vacuum: without either research or discussion. In so far as conservation strategies represent a critical stage in management planning, an explicit definition for conservation work is necessary. Here, different management

strategies are necessarily depend on the authenticity of the resource in question, because its authenticity already involves many considerations related the values (see Chapter 4.5.2 and Chapter 4.6.2). For instance, the Burra Charter defined some relevant terms (Australia ICOMOS 1999 2-3); in order to understand the definition in the context of this research, '*fabric*' should be replaced by '*artefact*', and '*place*' by '*site*' (see Chapter 5.2.2)

In terms of the integrity of original materials and techniques, *maintenance* can mean activities to conserve the resource in the most authentic state, while *restoration* is recognised as a simple activity to recover the original form or state. On the other hand, *reconstruction* is the implementation of new materials or techniques to return the resource to its former state. In other words, the definitions are closely linked with authenticity; for example, 'to what extent is the resource authentic in terms of the tangible aspect?' (see Figure 80).



Figure 80: Authenticity and conservation work

Recently, a number of recent management plans conducted in South Korea, have, unsurprisingly, included conservation work. However, it is difficult to assess whether these plans indicate appropriate conservation work, due to the ambiguity of the definitions. Since conservation strategies are central to the management plan, they should be set out with explicit definitions. Thus, this

research attempts to suggest explicit definitions for conservation work in the holistic management planning model: maintenance (유지-維持), repair (수리-修理), restoration (복원-復元), reconstruction (재건-再建), and rebuilding (개축-改築).

#### 5.2.6.1 *Maintenance* (유지-維持)

In many cases, keeping and protecting the original or current condition of the archaeological resource is an ongoing process. *Maintenance* involves the continuous care of the resource, such as daily or otherwise regular conservation work with authentic materials and/or techniques. Accordingly, *maintenance* can be applied to resources in a highly authentic state, and can also be conducted after the restoration, reconstruction, and rebuilding.

#### 5.2.6.2 *Repair* (수리-修理)

Archaeological resources, in particular archaeological sites, are rarely found in their original form or condition. In most cases resources have been damaged over time. Repair concerns work on the damaged part, in order to prevent further damage. *Repair* involves returning the resource to its original condition and state (which is already well researched) with authentic materials and techniques. *Repair* takes advantage of this authentic material and technique to recover the original form.

#### 5.2.6.3 *Restoration* (복원-復元)

*Restoration* refers to conservation work that uses novel materials and techniques. In many cases, it is almost impossible to return an archaeological resource to its original condition with authentic materials and techniques, even when sufficient information about the condition is available. For instance, when it is impossible to re-create a traditional material through a traditional techniques or recovery, it is necessary to seek an alternative source. The traditional fabric or technique may not be appropriate for the management of a site; as, for instance, in the case of a fragile material that cannot survive high visitor pressure or climate change; in this situation it is necessary to look for new materials that will offer overall protection to the resource.

#### 5.2.6.4 *Reconstruction* (재건-再建)

*Reconstruction* can be used in cases where the original form or location of an archaeological resource is severely damaged. It entails the partial recovery of the original condition of the resource through the use of authentic materials and techniques. For instance, a number of the archaeological sites in the prehistoric period in South Korea are buried resources, and structures above the ground can only be reconstructed through archaeological investigation of the remains beneath the surface. For this reason, the result can never be absolutely authentic.



#### 5.2.6.5 Rebuilding (개축-改築)

*Rebuilding* archaeological resources means restoring a resource where one has only imperfect knowledge of the resource's original condition. For instance, in cases where information about the location of the resource is incomplete, or where information about the structure is based on oral knowledge, the work is necessarily carried out using an element of guesswork. While the rebuild may be regarded as inauthentic in absolute terms, it is nevertheless necessary where heritage is valuable - and imbued with symbolic meaning – in order to assure its continued existence, irrespective of these compromises.

It can be said that all of these types of conservation work are closely related to the location of the archaeological resources. In principle, maintenance, repair, and restoration can be conducted with *in-situ* resources, while reconstruction and rebuilding can be carried out in both the original and a new one.

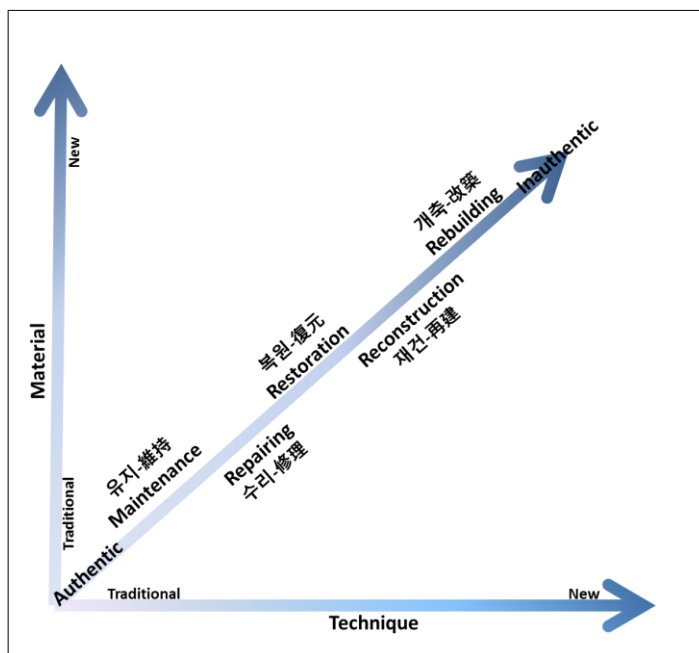


Figure 81: Authenticity and conservation works

## **6 A holistic management planning model for buried archaeological sites in South Korea**

### **6.1 The need for a holistic model**

A holistic management model can be defined as a bridge between intellectual conceptions and practical approaches to Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea. As seen in Chapter 4, the various issues related to the management of archaeological resources result from the lack of an established intellectual framework. Conflict between the various stakeholders involved in the management process often results from controversies surrounding practical approaches that lack any theoretical underpinnings. This research has focused on elucidating the intellectual and theoretical framework for reconciling these issues, giving particular note to the practical problems that have arisen in South Korea thus far. This holistic model, therefore, attempts to deal with the South Korean issues in practice, within the specified intellectual framework. To conclude, the holistic management planning model in this thesis is built upon internationally accepted intellectual frameworks, but designed to address the specific issues of buried archaeological site management in South Korea.

The background context of this holistic model is value-based management planning, including participatory planning and the transparent assessment of diverse values for rational decision making in the planning process. The value-based context is unlikely to deviate from existing value-based models – e.g. Planning for Conservation & Management (Demas 2002), Mason's planning

process methodology (2002), strategic planning model (Hall and McArthur (1998), and the planning process by Pearson and Sullivan (1995). The primary difference between the holistic model in this research and the models referenced above is specifically South Korean perspective that it incorporates. Most models have been developed with the western context to deal with western issues and challenges as an intellectual framework. The holistic planning model in this research, however, focuses on the South Korean context. In addition, this holistic model attempts to generate practical and feasible management approaches against the diverse challenges that I have already outlined.

Proceeding from this basis, the holistic model at the centre of this research necessitates three stages:

- 1) *Identifying*. Developing an understanding of the diverse values for buried archaeological remains in South Korean;
- 2) *Assessment*. Developing assessment criteria to reflect these diverse values;
- 3) *Responding*. Developing means to implement management approaches, based on the assessment.

These stages can also be paralleled with the 'Why', 'Who', 'What' and 'How' issues discussed in the previous chapters. In other words, the *identifying* stage relates to the issues of 'Why and Who'; *assessment* is relevant to 'What'; and

*responding* reflects the 'How'. Although these stages unfold in the order given, the process can be repeated as necessary.

## 6.2 Stage 1. Identifying: Documentation (Who)

In a broad sense, the *identifying* stage – Stages 1 & 2 – involves a process of giving specific and particular reasons as to why a certain archaeological site should be managed. It could be replaced by the 'issues and challenges' of the site, and perhaps the aims and purpose of the plan. From this perspective, there can be no doubt that this stage literally deals with issues related to 'Why', whereas it may not be relevant to the 'Who' issue. However, the issues and challenges of a site cover everything from a site's physical condition, such as issues of conservation, to conflicts between stakeholders, such as protection and development. In addition, the aims and purpose of a management plan should include a solution to these issues and problems, as well as incorporating approaches to enhance the meaning and values of the archaeological site. It is only possible to justify the reasons underpinning the management plan with reference to the appropriate information gauged about a site through the participation of the relevant stakeholders.

Thus, from both a fundamental and an intellectual point of view, management planning should be carried out within the participatory process (see Chapter 5.1.1), and the issues, challenge and purpose of the plan should be set up with the notion of participation in mind. Those practical aspects of management

planning, whether we are talking about issues and problems, or aims, can all be extracted from the archaeological site's overarching context. All of these processes can be incorporated into the rubric of 'understanding'.

'Understanding' means not only exploring the factual information pertaining to a resource, but also identifying issues and problems that relate to its contemporary context. In other words, in order to understand an archaeological site, it is necessary to consider together both the physical condition of the site, and the stakeholders who are related to the site.

To sum up, in order to set up a management plan's rational aims purpose, it is necessary to gather relevant information related to the archaeological site in question; this information should cover everything from the factual information pertaining to a site, to the information gathered by the relevant stakeholders. In order to gather such information, it is necessary to involve different stakeholders in the management planning process. Thus, Stage '*identifying*', can be divided into two parts for 'Who' and 'Why'. The stage 1 'Who' consists of two steps of organising the planning team and documentation and the Stage 2 'Why' includes mission statement for setting up the aims (Figure 82 & Figure 88).

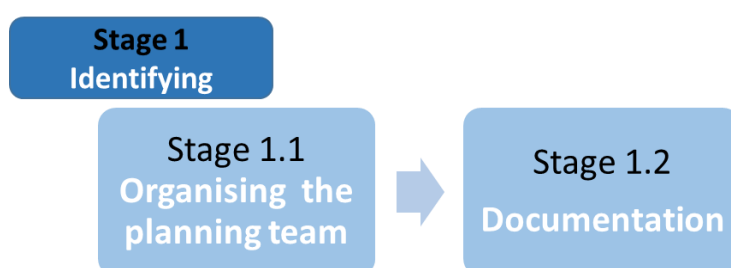


Figure 82: Stage 1: Identifying – Team building & Documentation

## 6.2.1 General principle for organizing the planning team

### 6.2.1.1 *Participatory management planning*

When organising the management planning team, the most important principle is the 'participatory' principle. In fact, this is the principle that underpins the whole planning process. In so far as management planning is designed to protect all the values relating to an archaeological site, all the stakeholders linked to an archaeological site should take part in the planning process, something that can be achieved through membership of the planning team. We all understand, however, that it is impossible, or ineffective, in practice, to involve all stakeholders equally. Rather, stakeholders should be involved in the plan in different ways, in accordance with their diverse views and opinions. On the basis of such differences, some scholars have attempted to categorise stakeholders in line with the relationship between the stakeholder and an archaeological resource (e.g. see Chapter 4.3.1 and Chapter 4.3.2), in order to allocate different roles in participatory planning.

Unfortunately, management plans in South Korea have played only a limited role in terms of participatory planning, such as administrative management for the government. This mainly results from the absence of a participatory planning process (see Chapter 4.3.1); consequently, plans have not addressed the wide range of stakes and interests, especially the interests of the public (see Chapter 2.3.2). In order to develop an effective form of participatory planning, therefore, this research has attempted to divide the stakeholders into specific types (see

Chapter 5.2.5). The principle underlying this categorisation is that each stakeholder plays a different role in the planning process.

All stakeholders can be divided in line with their relationship with a particular archaeological resource. The people, group(s) of people, institution(s), or organisation(s) that are most closely associated with a resource tend to be those that are most deeply involved in the planning process. The degree or order of involvement in the management planning process could be decided on the basis of each stakeholder's particular interest in a resource. Stakeholders, particularly professional groups, are important informants on account of the information that they possess because of their relationship with the resource by virtue of their academic research. Management plans depend on this information as their basis, thus necessitating the involvement of these stakeholders. Their interest or concern in archaeological resources is also important in terms of involvement in the management planning. The local or national government, for example, holds responsibility for protecting the resource; while site managers or owners have legal responsibilities pertaining to the site. Their particular perspectives often inform the issues that they raise, for example legal controls against shifting a resource, ownership issues, and investigations. When a management plan is initiated, it becomes possible to unpack different issues depending on these multiple lines of association with the resource; together they contribute to the goals of the plan.

The people and organisations that are less closely linked to an archaeological resource are the object of a management plan, whereas a constant or regular association with the resource defines the remit of the subject. It can be said that the former takes on a passive role in management planning, being to some extent an outsider. Outsiders tend not to produce issues based on their own interests, and are often regarded as an object (target) of management planning, impacting, for instance, interpretation and presentation strategies. In a broad sense, the management plan aims to enhance and promote the values of an archaeological resource with presentation and interpretation. The enhancement or promotion of the values involves disseminating values to a large sector of the public in order to enhance their understanding. For instance, presentation and interpretation help to widen the intellectual ownership of the resource in question (see Chapter 2.3.1) and contributes to stakeholders' support for the preservation of archaeological resources. It would be a process to shape the contemporary socio-economic value in the modern conception of Archaeological Resource Management.

#### *6.2.1.2 Interdisciplinary and cooperative work*

The idea of interdisciplinary and cooperative work, coupled with that of the participatory planning process, is well established in recent approaches to Archaeological Resource Management. As mentioned by a number of professionals, institutions, and international organisations, management planning is an interdisciplinary and cooperative work, which is led by experts from a



number of different fields. This is not only because archaeological sites often consist of a complex of diverse types of remains, but also because as a value, which is a fundamental goal of protection in management planning, it is comprised of various dimensions. It is widely accepted that professionals from different fields should be involved in management planning as it relates to the physical dimensions of the archaeological site; for example the ICOMOS Charter for the Protection and Management of Archaeological Heritage emphasised the importance of qualified professionals from different disciplines, as well as the importance of training them for the management of archaeological resources (ICOMOS and ICAHM1990 Article 8); similarly, the ICOMOS Principles for the Recording of Monuments, Groups of Buildings and Sites, specifically stated that 'the complexity of the recording and interpretation process requires the deployment of individuals with adequate skill, knowledge and awareness for the associated tasks' (ICOMOS 1996, RESPONSIBILITY 1) for the documentation. Professionals have the knowledge to understand and interpret the different dimensions of a site: e.g. archaeologists discover historic and cultural meanings based on physical remains, conservators attempt to protect the physical remains of a site, and experts in interpretation and presentation have a role in delivering information gauged from the physical evidence. Separately, these activities have positive ends in terms of the protection of a site, however there is also potential for conflict between them; e.g. archaeologists might want to expose a site for research, which may contradict the advice of conservators, who might prefer to

rebury a site in order to protect it; similarly, interpretation experts might want to present a site to the public, while the conservators may prefer to limit public access in order to best facilitate its protection. Management planning represents an approach through which these diverse issues can be tackled, as a cooperative work between professionals who have different interests and agenda.

Issues of communication sometimes arise in cooperative work between professionals holding different attitudes regarding an archaeological resource. The general acceptance that management planning should be an interdisciplinary and cooperative process, entails it providing a space for professionals to actively discuss their stakes and interests with other experts from different fields. However, given the brief history of Archaeological Resource Management, misunderstandings may arise as a result of the use of terminology. Thus, many charters that make recourse to management planning models or suggest the use of models, often include a section on terminology; e.g. the Australia ICOMOS Burra Charter defines relevant terminology, Pearson and Sullivan (1995) also begin by examining key concepts, while Demas (2000) discusses the definition of diverse values. Some defined technological terms are helpful in terms of communication between the professionals from the different fields, with this agreement of principles essential for interdisciplinary cooperative work in management planning.

### 6.2.1.3 *Site specific professionals and their different roles*

Site specific contexts require a management team if participatory and interdisciplinary cooperative management planning is to take place. This may include a number of professionals who hold relationships with the archaeological resource in question, with the planning team comprising of all of those professionals who hold relevant information and interests. The first steps of the management plan involves drawing together documentation that contains a significant amount of varied information relating to the resource in question; this may include both accessible and unpublished information, as well as that which is informal and private, from the professionals to the general public alike. In order to gather all the relevant information, all of those professionals who have information should have some involvement in the plan as major stakeholders. This does not mean, however, that all stakeholders are equally involved or given the same role in a management plan. They play different roles in the planning process depending on their nature. For instance, subject stakeholders participate more directly, e.g. as a member of the planning team; while team should take into account the object stakeholders in every part of the planning process, whether they are less directly or indirectly involved in planning. Thus, stakeholders play different roles in the planning process depending on their nature. In addition, members of the public who hold relevant information may become part of the planning process.

## 6.2.2 Approaches to organizing the planning team in the holistic model

### 6.2.2.1 *Identifying stakeholders*

In order to carry out management planning in accordance with the general principles above, the first step involves the establishment planning team, which is itself dependent upon the development on an understanding of all the stakeholders, each of whom take different role depending on their relationship with the resource in question. In order to do so it is necessary, first and foremost, to identify the relevant stakeholders. The methodology of Robert and King (1989) is helpful as it divides this process into three stages (see Figure 83):

- 1) Listing
- 2) Classification
- 3) Role sharing

#### **A. Listing**

The 'Listing' stage involves drawing up a list of all the potential stakeholders that are associated with, or interested in, an archaeological site: from professionals to the public, and from individuals to organisations. Ideally, one should aim to list as many stakeholders as possible. Although it may be sufficient to arrange the list in alphabetical order, one useful approach involves the categorisation of the stakeholders by value. The values typology mentioned in Chapter 2.4.1.2 represents one possible tool for this categorisation process, and is divided into traditional values and contemporary values. All stakeholders potentially share in or produce one of these values; e.g. typically, traditional values are associated

with scholars, including archaeologists, historians, conservators and architects, while contemporary values are associated with the local public and with government bodies, such as NGOs and local governments and so on.

## **B. Classification**

As regards the concept of participatory planning it is possible - indeed, desirable - that stakeholders play differentiated roles in the planning process. Therefore, the "classification" stage involves the development of an understanding of the nature of the stakeholders. For this, it is important to identify each of their interests and ideas concerning the archaeological site in question, with a review of the stakeholders' past activities representing the most readily achievable approach. It is especially important to understand their relative contributions or power in the decision-making process. Stakeholders should be categorised throughout the assessment process, with the different roles held by the stakeholders addressed in the management planning process.

Classification by stakeholder category, as in Chapter 5.2.5, is a useful stage in the establishment of a planning team. Obviously, the Government, which is responsible for managing an archaeological site, is comparatively straightforward to define. In the case of Insider-Academic and Insider, the very categorisation 'Insider' can influence the decision-making process, due to the close assumed relationship between 'Insiders' and a site. On the other hand, the word 'Outsider' in Outsider-Academic, as well as the Outsider classification holds comparatively

little power in the decision-making process. To summarise, while the Insider-Academic, Insider and Government are major parts of the planning process as direct participants in planning, the Outsider-Academic and Outsider are only indirectly involved, and have less influence on decisions.

### C. Role sharing

The purpose of the classification of stakeholders is not to exclude certain stakeholders (e.g. Outsider), but to differentially distribute roles among them. In terms of the extent of involvement in the planning process, it is possible to divide stakeholders into the planning team advisory group, which is directly involved in the planning process, and the Outsider, which is indirectly involved. This does not entail the exclusion of that the latter stakeholders from planning or decision-making; rather, the planning team should take into account the Outsiders and their views on the site. The Government, Insider-academic and Insider, who are involved in the planning process as members of the planning team, make the decisions, however their decisions take into consideration and incorporate the opinions of the Outsider-Academic and Outsider. In order to ensure that the latter are heard, the Outsider-Academic may play a role within an advisory group, and it is important, for the sake of transparency and a fully rational process, that all decisions reflect the diverse views of the Outsider.

<b>Building process</b>	Hall & MacArthur (1988, 45; re-quote from Robert and King (1989))
<b>Listing</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Understanding of stakeholders</li> <li>b. Identification of stakeholders</li> <li>c. Determination of stakeholder interest, priorities, and values</li> </ul>

<b>Classification</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>d. Review of past behaviour of stakeholders to assess their strategies relating to issues</li> <li>e. Estimation of the relative power (legal authority, political authority, resources, access to media) of each stakeholder and stakeholder coalitions</li> <li>f. Assessment of how well your organisation is currently meeting the needs and interests of stakeholders</li> </ul>
<b>Division of roles</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>g. Formulation of new strategies, if necessary, to meet relations with stakeholders and stakeholders coalitions</li> <li>h. Evaluation of effectiveness of stakeholder management strategies, with revisions and readjustment of priorities in order to meet stakeholder interests</li> </ul>

Figure 83: Robert and King 1989: methodology for identifying stakeholders.

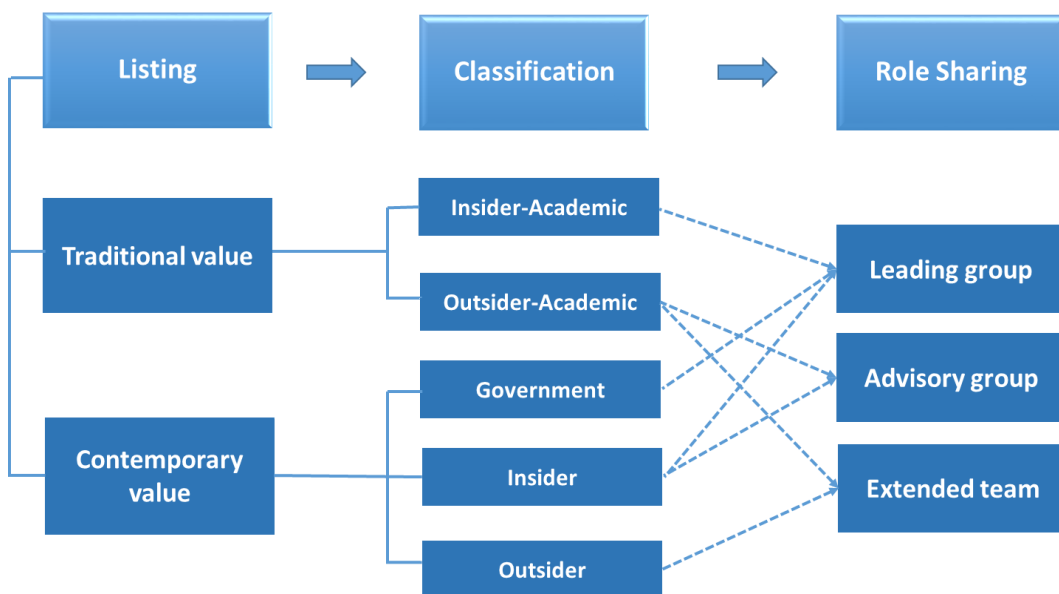


Figure 84: Diagram illustrating the process of identifying stakeholders.

#### 6.2.2.2 *Planning team structure*

Once the relevant stakeholders have been identified, the next stage involves establishing a structure for the planning team. Broadly, the team consists of three parts, which reflect both the extent of involvement and the role played by its members: 'Leading Group, Advisory Group, and Extended Group'. In addition, these three groups each have a different relationship with the archaeological

site, possess different decision-making powers, and play different roles in the planning process. However, members of a group are changeable, and some groups' membership may overlap. Figure 84 shows the hierarchy of a planning team.

### **A. Leading Group - Driver**

The Leading Group is the group that has the most responsibility for leading the planning process. The first task is to build a team. In principle, the group consists of individuals or organisations that are directly or closely associated with an archaeological site, and should be formed at the beginning of the planning process. This is because the members of the Leading Group are those in possession of the most information about the site, and as such play an important role in listing all of the potential stakeholders, i.e. the first stage of identifying stakeholders, 'Listing'. While the initial members of the group carry out listing work, they can also identify people or organisations who might subsequently become involved in the Leading Group.

In addition, the Leading Group is responsible for liaising with the Advisory Group and Extended Group to exchange views and opinions throughout the planning process. Liaison and communication is undertaken in order to fulfil the objective of participatory planning in a broad sense. The Leading Group is also advised and counselled by the Advisory Group on issues about which they do not have sufficient knowledge. Consequently, this group is a coalition of the stakeholders



who have the most information about the site, and is the most influential when it comes to decision making. Accordingly, they have responsibility for leading the management planning as a whole. In terms of stakeholder category, Government, Insider-Academic, and Insider are affiliated to the Leading Group.

a. Government

The government, especially the local government, is the most easily identifiable member of the Leading Group. Based on the notion that all archaeological sites are public property, a governmental body has administrative responsibility for their protection. Thus, when we talk about the 'managing authority', we usually mean the local government. In fact, most management plans conducted in South Korea have traditionally been initiated as part of the administrative management of the governmental body (see Chapter 4.3.1.3 and 4.3.2.3). For instance, the management planning process is funded by the government. Even where a target site is nationally designated heritage, the budget for the management plan is granted to the local government by the national government. The local government is responsible for budgeting. For this reason, the local government selects the institution that initiates the plan, taking into consideration its relationship with the site, its reputation and budget. The completed plan is subsequently approved by the CHA before its implementation. The local governmental that is administratively responsible for managing a site, therefore, also takes on the role of major stakeholder.

#### b. Insider-Academic

The Insider-Academic represents another critical group in the management planning team. Since the management of buried sites, in particular, necessitates the involvement of scholars - mostly archaeologists - with the professional skill to yield appropriate information, this group largely has Insider-Academic affiliation, and comprises, therefore, important members of the planning team. Their information they possess, which results from academic study and research, such as archaeological investigations, is a critical source of traditional values.

Professionals who have been involved in conservation work also constitute an important group of stakeholders in the Leading Group. They can offer important information about the physical condition of a site which is vital when it comes to leading the planning process.

For the reasons outlined above, the Insider-Academic often plays a major role in management planning today. In South Korea, those archaeologists and institutions involved in the archaeological investigations at the site are generally regarded as the major stakeholders representing the Insider-Academic (see Chapter 5.2.5). This is not only because they provide the major source of cultural or historic information for traditional values, but also because they understand a site's particular characteristics due to their long involvement with it. This long-term involvement also can be advantage when it comes to the identification of Insiders for the Leading Group, particularly those who will play an important role in elucidating the site's contemporary value.

### c. Insider

The involvement of the Insider is a key issue for participatory management planning. Although a number of professionals in the field of Archaeological Resource Management understand the importance of the public in the management planning process (see Chapter 2.2), in practice the incorporation of public opinion is a difficult process; the South Korean case is typical in this respect (see Chapter 4.3). With regard to the 'by who' issue, members of the public who are closely associated with an archaeological site, or 'Insiders', should be actively involved in the planning process. In fact, the range of people incorporated by 'Insiders' is very flexible, and ranges from local communities or interest groups to landlords, while the views of all of these can differ across the spectrum, from positive to negative. Obviously, it is difficult to embrace every single Insider. Nevertheless, in terms of the value-based approach, Insiders are important stakeholders because they form and share contemporary values through their interaction with archaeological sites.

It is the task of the Government and Insider-Academic to choose the Insiders whose involvement in the Leading Group in the planning process may subsequently be invited. With respect to the extent of this involvement, the landlord(s) represent the first category of Insider, since the management plan, unsurprisingly, may impact on their property. Local communities are important secondary Insiders. Local amateur history study groups, which are found in every region, are one further example of a group that usually has an interest in the site.

Besides the aforementioned groups there could be a number of other interest groups, including businessmen running a business in the site's local area, NGOs, schools, private groups of friends, tourism organisations, and so on. It is not realistic, however, for all of these groups to be involved in the planning process. Thus, the Leading Group should consist of those members who are able to represent diverse stakes and interests.

### **B. Advisory Group - Facilitator**

The Advisory Group represents another important participant in the planning process. It is necessary to gather together a wide range of information and knowledge in the production of the policies and strategies that make up a management plan. Although the Leading Group may be in possession of a lot of information about a site, they cannot cover all of the issues and problems at stake. The main role of the Advisory Group is one of offering support to the Leading Group by providing additional information and knowledge. Members of the Advisory Group can join the Leading Group, or participate more actively and directly in the planning process, as the situation demands. Typically, the Advisory group offers regular or issue-based irregular consultation meetings in order to contribute to the planning process. The Leading group maintains lines of communication with other external professionals and the public as sources of consultation and advice.

#### **a. Outsider Academic**

Classically Advisory Group membership is comprised of Outsider-Academics. As previously noted in Chapter 4.3.1.2, the planning process should be interdisciplinary. Due to the complexity of archaeological sites and the dynamics of their contemporary values, management plans need to draw upon a wide range of professional knowledge. The Leading Group cannot be expected to be in possession of all of the required knowledge. It would be necessary to set up a large-scale Leading Group for this to be possible, which would be ineffective in terms of its organisation. Instead, the Advisory Group plays a role in providing the necessary professional information and knowledge for the Leading Group.

b. Insider

As previously noted, the Insider may be a member of the public. As such it is unrealistic to expect every person who has a stake or an interest in a site to be equally involved in the management plan. The major Insider stakeholders can take part in the planning process, and other stakeholders may be less directly or even indirectly involved in the process as members of the Advisory Group.

**C. Extended Group**

The Extended Group consists of people who are less closely related to the site in question. The people who might constitute this group are very wide-ranging, and, as such, it is difficult to specify the precise nature of the Extended Group. Accordingly, it is possible for the Extended Group to become a participant as, well as an object of a management plan. Recent trends in the management of

archaeological resources, namely, the use of resources for the public, as well as the protection of resources, entails that members of the Leading Group and Advisory Group should take into account the stakes and interests of the 'Extended Group'.

### 6.2.3 Definition of 'Documentation'

The next stage is 'Documentation'. Documentation is the process of collecting all of the information that is relevant to an archaeological resource and represents the first step of management planning more generally. The basic principle, as many scholars have mentioned (e.g. Demas 2002), is one of accumulating as much information as possible. However, this is not a simple process of storing or producing information. Rather, it is the means by which managers and/or planners may gain an understanding of the value of a resource. This is very complex process that requires input from specialists; however, there are few research experts of this order in South Korea. Thus, this holistic model takes advantage of documentation process for in order to gain an understanding of the values that archaeological resources are imbued with. Accordingly, the documentation in this model is explored on the basis of a value-based approach (see Chapter 6.2.5)

The process of gaining an understanding of a site's components represents an early stage in the planning process: an archaeological site is a complex of diverse remains of the human past, from artefacts to underground structures. The first

step of management planning is one of exploring the site's current context, including the number, type, and condition of artefacts, and the structures that characterise the site. At the same time, it is necessary to gather information regarding a site's intangible components, such as the site's history, including early phases of conservation work, academic research data pertaining to it, and relevant traditional materials and techniques. The relationship between the site and its local community is an especially critical component of the documentation for a value-based planning approach. Although planners and managers understand the value of sites based on such information, it is not simply a case of identifying the importance and/or significance of a site. 'Understanding' is also the process of identifying the issues and problems that a site is confronted with. These issues and problems will then comprise the aims of the management plan.

Secondly, 'documentation' is an ongoing activity that continues beyond the early stages of management planning. Article 15 of the Venice Charter, for instance, states that all relevant works to manage archaeological resources should be recorded. A process of the management planning and all works in accordance of the plan is a critical object of the documentation. The documentation process does not represent a singular task within the management planning process, but is the ongoing process of accumulating various bits of information related to a site, including conservation and maintenance activities, investigation data, and monitoring data. This information may be used solely for the management planning process, however, it might also be used for other purposes, for example

providing comparative data for other archaeological resources. The process of resolving controversial issues - their 'assessment' (dealt with in a subsequent chapter) is often identified as one of the key functions of the management plan. For this process, too, it is necessary to accumulate a variety of types of information related to the site. In addition, for effective assessment, this information should be compared to information gauged from similar archaeological sites. The information related to a site's documentation offers comparative data for the assessment process, as well as being a source of information with regards to the site itself. In addition, the information contained within the documentation provides a secondary source for the presentation and interpretation of the site.

In some cases, especially when it comes to buried archaeological resources, documentation represents one of the key aims of a site. The remains of buried sites are usually located underground, which means that it can difficult to obtain detailed information about the site. The lack of information caused by this invisibility makes it hard to conduct a comprehensive management plan. In this case, archaeological excavation necessarily becomes a major element of the planning process, being essential for obtaining data for the management plan. However, even in the case of rescue excavations, there are very few options after excavation. As seen in Figure 3 and Figure 5, most rescue excavated sites are protected by recording. These sites subsequent destruction entails that their excavated artefacts are all that remains. In any case, it is necessary that



archaeologists remember that archaeological excavation is a critical part of the management of a site.

#### 6.2.4 General principles for 'Documentation'

Due to the importance of documentation, many scholars and organisations have emphasised and proposed critical principles for the documentation and recording of information; specific examples include the ICOMOS Charter for the Protection and Management of Archaeological Resources 1990; Pearson and Sullivan (1995, 108-109); the ICOMOS Principles for the Recording of Monuments, Groups of Buildings and Sites 1996; the Australia ICOMOS Burra charter 1999.

The content of these principles is similar, and can equally be applied to the holistic management planning model that is proposed in this research.

Particularly well-defined principles and details concerns can be found in the ICOMOS Principles for the Recording of Monuments, Groups of Buildings and Sites 1996 (ICOMOS 1996) and the Guidelines to the Burra Charter in terms of the assessment of cultural significance (Australia ICOMOS 1999, 12-13). Thus, this section of the thesis attempts to outline the principles of documentation in management planning with reference to these two international charters.

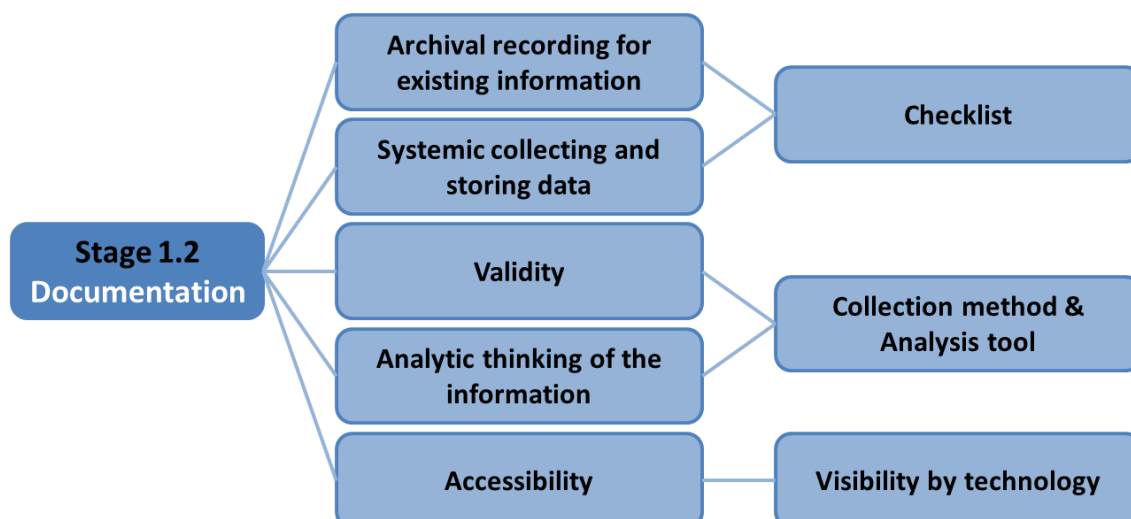


Figure 85: Diagram illustration Stage 1.2: Documentation.

In the above two documents, the critical principles of documentation relate to four main contexts: archival collection of information; systemic collection and storing of data; an analysis of the validity of the information; and matters of accessibility (see Figure 85).

#### 6.2.4.1 *Archival recording for existing information*

The 'archival approach' is the principle underlying documentation in management planning. This generally entails the gathering of as much relevant information as possible without preconceived ideas. It draws upon existing information, in all of its diversity, such as 'survey data, drawings, photographs, published and unpublished accounts and descriptions, and related documents pertaining to the origins and history of' archaeological resources (ICOMOS 1996, PLANNING FOR RECORDING 1. a). For this reason, the most general principle of any guidelines or recommendations regarding documentation is one of emphasizing the gathering of all existing information in order to fully understand

a resource. This information relates, for example, to a resource's current physical condition, as in Burra Charter Guidelines *(b)*, *(d)*, non-physical or intangible information, *(c)*, *(e)*, *(f)*, the resource's history, *(a)*, *(h)*, and information relating to contemporary thinking about a site, *(g)*, etc.

### *3.2 Collection of information*

*Information relevant to the assessment of cultural significance should be collected. Such information concerns:*

- ( a ) the developmental sequence of the place and its relationship to the surviving fabric;*
- ( b ) the existence and nature of lost or obliterated fabric;*
- ( c ) the rarity and/or technical interest of all or any part of the place;*
- ( d ) the functions of the place and its parts ;*
- ( e ) the relationship of the place and its parts with its setting;*
- ( f ) the cultural influences which have affected the form and fabric of the place;*
- ( g ) the significance of the place to people who use or have used the place, or descendants of such people;*
- ( h ) the historical content of the place with particular reference to the ways in which its fabric has been influenced by historical forces or has itself influenced the course of history ;*
- ( i ) the scientific or research potential of the place;*
- ( j ) the relationship of the place to other places, for example in respect of design, technology, use, locality or origin;*
- ( k ) any other factor relevant to an understanding of the place.*

**Figure 86: Excerpt from the Burra Charter (Australia ICOMOS 1999, 12-13).**

This archival approach is not simply a means of initiating the management planning process; it also includes the management of relevant information.

Documentation is a continuous task, aimed at gathering information for future use. In fact, all of the information collected in the documentation process must be considered, examined and referred to in the management plan, even though there is usually not enough space to enumerate every fragment of information, (and, indeed, it is unnecessary to do so). Instead, certain pieces of key data are

used and highlighted in the plan. Nevertheless, the reason for the archival collection of all data is to ensure that it is retained for future use. The archival approach means that 'the materials used for compiling the finished record must be archivally stable' (THE REASONS FOR RECORDING 2.d). For instance, once a management plan is established, a number of works are subsequently implemented by the plan, including conservation work, protection work, interpretation and presentation, maintenance work (daily, short-term and long-term), investigation, and information monitoring. All of the information related to this work should be recorded and kept up to date. For this reason, the ICOMOS Charter (1996) clearly emphasized the importance of recording before, during and after all of the activities related to a resource (THE REASONS FOR RECORDING 1 a to f). In addition, the management plan should be reviewed and revised, and may even have to be re-written some time after its instigation. New issues and problems may appear in this process, which means that any new information not used in the management plan should be re-examined before a new management plan or strategy, is set up.

#### *6.2.4.2 The systematic collection and storage of data*

Another critical principle in the archiving of diverse information is the systematic collection and storage of data. Not surprisingly, a wide variety of data, both in terms of content and format, is necessarily gathered and stored in the documentation process. As mentioned in the ICOMOS Recommendation 1996, recording requires 'the deployment of individuals with adequate skill, knowledge

and awareness for associated tasks' (RESPONSIBILITY FOR RECORDING 2); thus, collaborative work by experts in different fields is necessary, 'such as specialist heritage recorders, surveyors, conservators, architects, engineers, researchers, architectural historians, archaeologists above and below ground, and other specialist advisors' (RESPONSIBILITY FOR RECORDING 3). Because of the complexity of the data, documentation becomes an intractable task, even more so because there are few clearly defined boundaries between the information gathered; the information from the various experts often overlaps, and is sometimes difficult to combine. Nevertheless, in management planning, planners need different kinds of information depending on the wider context. Thus, information should be easy to retrieve. A carefully designed collection and storage system is essential for the fast retrieval of relevant data, as well as representing an important aspect of any subsequent updates. When a management plan is initiated for the first time, it may be fully afforded by the all collaborated participators from different fields. Documentation is, however, an ongoing task after planning. Since planning is concluded to implement, only a few managers of a site are held responsible for the accumulation of information.

#### 6.2.4.3 *Validity*

The validity of information is an important concern of archival approaches to documentation. For traditional resource-based management plans, much of the emphasis was on factual information, such as quantitatively measurable information (e.g. the physical condition of a site, or fabrics and artefacts), or

descriptive texts (e.g. a site's investigation history, including descriptions of fabrics and artefacts). In relative terms, the assessment of the validity of these types of data is straightforward. However, the Guidelines to the Burra Charter (e) and (f), which relate to intangible information, show that assessments of this order of data, as well as that which relates to buried archaeological sites is not always agreed upon by professionals, who often hold divergent opinions. As such, if the research value of a site is to be protected for future generations, it is necessary to document these differing perspectives.

By contrast, it is important to consider the validity of certain other types of information, particularly that which relates to contemporary values, such as the Guidelines to the Burra Charter (g). This is because contemporary values are in flux (see Chapter 2.4.1). In principle, it is helpful to gather different voices, from different stakeholders, for purposes of management planning. It is necessary to examine the validity of these voices in the documentation process of management planning, because of the extent to which they may contribute to establishing its aims if bias is to be avoided. Consider, for instance, cases in which interest groups are intolerant of the views of other groups; some groups may express their perspectives based on partial knowledge; other groups may foreground issues based on an overvaluation of their interest in the resources. As such, it is necessary for the Insider-academic, as a professional stakeholder, and the Insider - on account of their close association with the resource - to review

the validity of this order of data on the behalf of the Advisory Group, who may subsequently communicate with the Leading management-planning Group

#### 6.2.4.4 *Analytic thinking of information*

Assessments of the validity of the various stakeholder views regarding an archaeological site is necessary in order to arrive at a consensus view. There may be conflicts and/or controversies between the opinions of stakeholders is and the aforementioned factual information. This is not necessarily problematic, if all the people who are interested in a site are involved in management planning; practically, however, this is very difficult to achieve. For instance, Demas (2000) suggests that the identification of stakeholders for management planning should represent the first stage in a value-based approach, the stakeholders being, typically, government agencies, archaeologists and researchers, groups with an affinity or ancestral relationship to the site in question, local community members, private tourist agencies, and specialised tourists. She also points out that one of the key potential pitfalls of participatory planning is the failure to invite certain stakeholders. Conflict, however, may arise even among participating stakeholders. Rather than avoiding such conflict, the planning team or site managers should place them centre-stage in the major aims of the management plan, in order to actively seek ways of resolving conflicts. In order to do this, the planners should not list the different views related to a site; rather, they a comprehensive approach should be followed, that embraces the diverse issues at stake, and establishes their foundations. Throughout this process,

documentation should prioritise the relevant issues, setting up the aims of the management plan. The act of 'prioritising' does not mean ignoring certain issue(s) or a certain groups' opinions, but rather classifies the various issues in order to define the vision, aim and purpose of the management plan (see 6.3.1) and foreground the management approaches to be explored, such as strategic, tactical and operational approaches (see 6.5.2)

Another reason for the analytic approach to documenting information is the need to produce competitive data. As mentioned repeatedly, a critical role of management planning is as a decision-making tool for the assessment of diverse values. In order to play this role effectively, it is necessary to conduct comparative analysis of the assessment process (this will be addressed more specifically in later chapters). To make any assessment transparent, values need to be assessed in comparison with another site that is similar in scale, period and social context. In fact, professionals often conduct comparative analyses because they are the easiest way of identifying the significance of archaeological resources; if it were possible to quantitatively analyse all of the relevant information this process would be a straightforward one. In reality, the information usually consists of a large amount of qualitative data, such as descriptive text. As such, comparative analysis is not a true-false task, but represents a broader consideration of the differences between sites. A comparison of documented information across sites requires an effective method of analysis and comparison. The collection of information should bear in



mind the importance of arriving at a process for comparative analysis, as well as for gathering relevant information.

#### 6.2.4.5 *Accessibility*

Another important aspect of documentation is the accessibility of information.

The importance of the general public as a stakeholder in modern Archaeological Resource Management is ever-increasing. For this reason, the management of archaeological sites should include as a fundamental aim the need to maintain a balance between the use of an archaeological site by the general public and the protection of the site. As a result, management plans pay close attention to the interpretation of the public, giving the public a more active role in the process. It is fair to say that the need to promote public participation, given their status as a major consumer of the information gained, has entailed the collation of increasing amounts of information. Letellier *et al.* (2007, 5) states that documentation represents one way of promoting the involvement of the public. The ICOMOS Principles for the Recording of Monuments, Groups of Buildings and Sites 1996 also emphasizes the 'Dissemination and Sharing of Records' (Letellier *et al.* 2007, 7), in particular, to 'enhance understanding of cultural heritage; promote the involvement of the public; and improve the quality of management decision making', hence the reasons for recording detailed in the ICOMOS Principles for the Recording of Monuments, Groups of Buildings and Sites 1996 (ICOMOS 1996). Thus, information should be shared with members of

the public, who potentially have a role as important stakeholders of the site, in addition to disseminating it to the relevant professionals.

### 6.2.5 Approaches to 'Documentation'

As seen in Chapter 4.3 shows, there is, at present, no reliable documentation system for the management planning of buried archaeological sites in South Korea. This section, therefore, attempts to propose practical approaches to documentation within the holistic management planning model. These approaches can be seen as developing out of the general principles set out in the previous section. On a fundamental level, the approaches suggested below should contribute to the establishment of a documentation standard for management planning with regards to buried archaeological sites in South Korea.

In order to establish general principles of documentation, this research project attempts to suggest possible guidelines for documentation (see Figure 87). The information that needs to be documented can be broadly divided into three categories: (1) general information about a site, (2) information about traditional values, and (3) information about contemporary values. Each category also has subcomponents relating to the recording of information.

Considering the circumstances in South Korea (for instance, Chapter 4.5.1), information regarding contemporary values is the most difficult to obtain. Data relating to general information and information about traditional values has

been comparatively well documented for the protection and management of buried archaeological sites, though documentation techniques are still at an embryonic stage. It would be fair to say, however, that information relating to contemporary values has frequently not been fully considered, or else has often been underestimated by planners and managers. In term of the participatory planning process for value-based plans, this set of information is essential. Hence the Insider, who presents most of the information relating to contemporary values, should be closely involved in the management planning process rather than being excluded (see Chapters 4.4.1 and 4.4.2). If a management plan collates the views of Insiders, it is necessary to gather a wider range of Outsider views, too. One important role of the Leading Group and the Advisory Group at the documentation stage of the planning process is that of identifying these views.

One approach that may be taken is to design and conduct a survey in order to establish the awareness of a site among the local public. Although it is generally agreed that archaeological sites should be protected, people often hold a negative view of this process; such views often stem from practical reasons – for example, because a site is at odds with personal property rights – or else from indifference, because of a lack of direct benefit from a site, even where there is an element of interest. From these diverse standpoints, the survey should identify the tendency of the public, or otherwise, to regard the site as a social resource. The process of documenting public perspectives is an important stage in the

process of building the aims which follows. Broadly then, management plans are conducted in order to capture and/or resolve the interests and demands of different stakeholders. In this light, documentation represents a key starting point in the planning process, which continues through to the assessment of values. Although these steps are discussed separately elsewhere in this research, they are interrelated and closely linked. Thus, the planning team should take into account documentation as part of the planning process.

From a practical view, documentation is 'the process of describing in a written, permanent form, all or some of the place's attributes' (Pearson and Sullivan 1995, 82). In fact, it is impossible to describe every piece of documented information in a management plan. In principle, therefore, data should be summarised, and the rest of the information should be safely stored and made easily accessible to those participating in the plan and to people who are interested in the site.

Category of information	Type of information	Information contents	Example of Method
<b>1. General information</b>	1.1 Name	Summarise the nature of the site	Plain text
	1.2 Type	Type of site	Plain text or graphic
	1.3 Period	Relative chronology & absolute date	Plain text or graphic
	1.4 Designation & responsible organisation	Designation information (reference number, date, scale)	Desk base survey
	1.5 Location & scale	Address and area of the site, buffer zone or protection area	Postal, cartographic, spatial
	1.6 Investigation & intervention	Summary The name of projects and admission numbers	Report titles
	1.7 Physical condition	Current condition assessment Previous conservation work	Field survey

	1.8 Ownership	Ownership of the site and current land use	Field survey Desk base survey
<b>2 Traditional value</b>	2.1 Historic information	The meaning of the site in local, regional and national history	Field survey & excavation Literature research
	2.2 Cultural information	The meaning of the site in the formation of local, regional, or national culture	Literature research
<b>3 Contemporary value</b>	3.1 Symbolic meaning	The meaning of the site as shared by the public	Interview & questionnaire with local public and communities
	3.2 Administrative context	Reviewing the legal framework for the management of the site	Local or regional development or land use plan
	3.3 Economic importance	Benefits of the site, including market and non-market value	Visitor survey
	3.4 Social importance	The role of the site at the local or regional level	Interview and questionnaire survey
	3.5 Educational importance	As an educational source	Reviewing school programmes

Figure 87: General guidance for the documentation stage.

### 6.3 Stage 2. Mission Statement (Why)

The vision, aims and purpose of a management plan follow and are a direct result of the documentation process, and can be set up as a form of Mission Statement that details the goals that the management team wants to achieve.

This includes stating, in a broad sense, the reasons for the protection and management of a site; illustrating the direction and a roadmap of the plan; and producing strategies to solve specific issues and problems that result from any gaps identified in the documentation. This Mission Statement plays a very important role in driving the management plan as a whole.

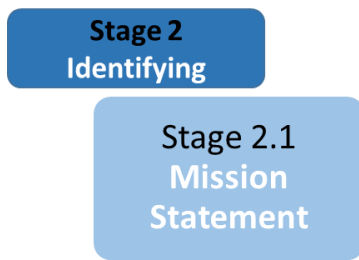


Figure 88: Stage 2: Identifying – Mission Statement

### 6.3.1 Definition of Vision, Aim and Purpose

In order to address the general principles of a Mission Statement, it is necessary to define the terms '*vision*', '*aim*' and '*purpose*'. One way of defining these words is in terms of time scale. '*Vision*' in a Mission Statement refers to the most comprehensive and fundamental goal of the management plan; obviously, this represents its relevance in the long term. '*Aim*' can refer to specific goals to be achieved in the medium term. Finally, '*purpose*' relates to more concrete issues and problems to be achieved or resolved in the short term. The methods used to address these concepts differ in terms of the matters of time and scale described. For instance, many guidelines or planning models have suggested detailed actions or work plans to achieve the aims and purpose; the guidelines for World Heritage sites by Feilden and Jokilehto (1998, 2) suggested long term plans (5-30 years), medium term plans (to 4 years) and annual work on an action plan. Hall and McArthur (1998, 20) addressed the vision (long term), goal (medium term), objective (short term), with strategic operation, an action plan, and day-to-day decision-making the means of responding to each. It is, perhaps, difficult to distinguish 'aims' precisely. In general, however, the vision, aims and

purpose have a logical relationship: the aims of a management plan build upon the vision, which is set up within a long term perspective, and, in the same context, approaches are set up in order to achieve the aims of the plan, including matters to be dealt with or resolved both in the short term and immediately. For this reason, the holistic model proposed in this research will not suggest specific time scales for the vision, aims and purpose. Instead, the management strategies, will build upon the vision, aims and approaches, with each having a time plan according to which they should be achieved (see Figure 89).

#### 6.3.1.1 *Short-term goals*

In order to explore the definitions of the terms set out above, this part starts with the short-term goals, which relate the issues and challenges that a site is facing, either now or in the near future, including physical threats and conflicts between stakeholders. In terms of time scale, therefore, it is necessary to deal with and resolve any issues or challenges in the short term, something that mostly happens on the site or at the site's boundaries. Many different issues and challenges may - potentially - come to be associated with the plans purpose, and the purpose cannot cover all of them at the same time. Consequently, priority should be given for setting up feasible and workable approaches. In addition, the short-term goals are logically related to the aims of management plan. In a logical sense, these are the most specific objectives of the management plan, as the first steps towards achieving the overall aims.

#### 6.3.1.2 *Aim*

In the same way, the aims of a management plan are concomitant with its vision. The defined values of an archaeological site are usually the focus of the aims, which can also be defined as its significance. However, according to the modern conception of the management of archaeological resources, values can be diverse, and may also relate to a variety of stakeholders. Thus, a management plan should promote, as well as protect, the significance of an archaeological site. The aims follow a more strategic approach than the short-term goals, and work at a longer time scale (medium term) and with a wider target space (a site's surrounding area).

#### 6.3.1.3 *Vision*

The 'vision' is the ambitious goal of a management plan, relating to the future of a site (Middleton 1994, 4) and embracing the aims of the plan. The values of an archaeological site are diverse, and some may already have been identified or defined as a form of 'significance'. The vision can mean the discovery and promotion of the undefined or underestimated values of a site, as well as its significance. Accordingly, this vision is related not only to the archaeological site itself, but also to the people and organisations associated with the site as the 'envisioned future' (Collins and Porras 1996). Obviously, this vision requires a long time-scale and relates to a variety of factors associated with a site. Thus, it needs a long-term plan, and should consider the landscape of a site in a comprehensive perspective.



	Conception	Goal	Time	Spatial Scale
Vision	The 'Future' of the site	Enhancement of values	Long-term plan	Landscape
Aim	The 'Tomorrow' of the site	Promotion of significance	Medium-term plan	Surroundings
Short-term	The 'Today' of the site	Protection of values	Short-term plan	On-site

Figure 89: Key concepts for a definition of 'visions', 'aims' and 'short-term goals'.

### 6.3.2 General principles of the Mission Statement

Considering the definitions of the vision, aims and short-term goals in the previous chapter, the Mission Statement should have the following principles.

#### 6.3.2.1 *Achievable, feasible and realistic*

The most important principles in the construction of a Mission Statement is that it is achievable, feasible and realistic, without which the whole plan will be meaningless. As the definitions in the previous section demonstrated, the vision of a management plan usually relates to work that takes a long time to achieve, such that it is often too general, ambiguous and ambitious – for example, enhancing or promoting local identity, or contributing to improvements in the local economy. The problem of such visions is the difficulty of making them happen, even in the long term. In other words, the vision should include the standards for judging success and failure, even where it is not possible to show

progress over time. When the vision is achieved, new visions can then be put in place.

The aim is necessarily more feasible than the vision. The meaning of 'feasible' or 'possible' in this context is that a work can be done or finished over a certain time frame; while the aim requires less time when compared to the vision. The difference between the vision and the short-term goals is that the former needs more time, while the latter have a more specific time frame for implementation. Accordingly, the aims should be more affordable still. In many management plans, the aims are a core part of the plan, suggesting what should be done over the next few years. For instance, in the case of a buried archaeological site, a plan often includes multiyear excavations in order to increase the amount of information obtained from a site. Consequently, time, budget and effort should be put in, and a positive output obtained. For this, aims, such as 'the kind of information that is expected and the length of time that is necessary', should be clearly defined.

In comparative terms the short-term goals should be those intentions for which achievement is the most realistic, because they deal with or solve immediate issues and problems. Stakeholders are often already aware of the issues and problems that relate to a given archaeological site when they become involved in the planning process. For instance, in a case of an archaeological site that is at risk, resolving the specified risk is likely to comprise the main purpose of the

plan, detailing the urgent or immediate care of the site that is necessary in order to prevent more damage.

#### 6.3.2.2 *Defining time and scale*

In fact, 'achievable', 'feasible' and 'realistic' are necessary in relation to both the vision and aims, and the short-term goals; such that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between them. It is most important that the plan gives clarity to all three based on the conditions and circumstances that are at play, rather than focusing energy upon imposing a distinction between them. Thus, this research project has not attempted to define a specific number of years for the vision, aims or short-term goals. Rather, a broad time frame for each is given, because management plans obviously have multiple aims. Within this time frame, the spatial scale for the vision and aims should be clearly stated. Considering the nature of the vision, which covers comprehensive goals that relate to the landscape, the aims can be grounded in more site-specific matters, as well as through reference to the gaps that a site faces. All archaeological sites have issues and problems because there is no magic tool for the management of sites. Once issues and problems are identified through the documentation, a process of prioritisation should be followed to clearly set out the aims. An effective approach to dealing with this is to prioritise by time and scale. For instance, the aims usually relate to matters that demand a longer time to resolve than the short-term goals. In terms of scale, the aim is related to larger scale issues, such

as those that relate to the whole site, whereas the short-term goals may only be relevant to part of a site.

#### 6.3.2.3 *Site specific*

Another important point for an achievable, feasible and realistic Mission Statement relates to the site-specific approach. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the documentation process requires analytical thinking in order to identify the issues and problems at a particular archaeological site. Obviously, all archaeological sites have different situations and conditions, and some of them, for instance those relating to contemporary values, are changeable over time; even the physical condition of a site can change. In other words, the issues and problems that an archaeological site faces are continuously changing and transforming. The Mission Statement should, thus, be driven from site-specific issues and problems on site. The aims, by contrast, cover a wider scale, such as a site's surroundings. Nevertheless, it is also comparatively more straightforward to develop out of the site-specific context, because the surroundings are closely or directly related to the site. Not surprisingly, it would be difficult to have a site-specific perspective for the vision because of the importance of the broader context, the landscape. For instance, perhaps the most often addressed words in management plans in South Korea today are 'enhancement of the significance and promotion of the values of the site in the first part of the management plan'. Although it is likely that the vision of the management plan will emerge out of this, the widest scale, the reason why it cannot be a vision is that tactics and

strategies cannot be developed to achieve this and are not related in logical scale of approaches (see Figure 90). The sentence is likely to be a ubiquitous sentence in the first chapter in management planning in South Korea. To sum up, the vision and aims of a management plan should be based on the site specific context if the plan is to be fully operable.

### 6.3.3 Approaches for the Mission Statement

#### 6.3.3.1 *The vision*

The vision of a management plan for an archaeological site is the large picture for the future of the site, which requires long term a time scale. The time frame to achieve the vision is, therefore, sometimes hard to specify. From an intellectual point of view, the vision is the fundamental reason and most comprehensive objective for managing a site, and for justifying the management plan to the stakeholders associated with the site. For this reason, it should place more focus on the participatory process, because it should be widely accepted. In a practical sense, the vision of a management plan can become the vision of the organization that is responsible for site. For instance, many management plans include a plan to build a management organisation, something which is recommended by many guidelines or planning models, e.g. the guideline for World Heritage sites (Feilden and Jokilehto 1998). Accordingly, the vision of the management plan becomes the vision of the organization responsible for the site's management. If the vision is not achievable or is too wordy or ambiguous, the organisation's existence becomes difficult to justify. In addition, if the vision is

set up to meet the interests of only a few stakeholders, the power underpinning the plan becomes weak, as does the organisation. In order to prevent this, the participatory planning process should drive the preparation of the vision; then it will have the power to lead the plan and the organization, even if the vision is only brief (a few sentences, perhaps).

#### 6.3.3.2 *The aims*

In terms of the management planning of an archaeological site, the aim can be defined as goals that require medium-term action rather than the long-term vision. On the basis of such a definition, the aims should be logically linked to the vision and time frame, and the scale should be addressed. In other words, although the aims are not immediately actionable, the plan needs to outline the time-scale through which they are achievable. Moving towards a more practical view of the management planning of archaeological sites, the aims place more focus on socio-economic or contemporary values than traditional values. For instance, management plans include the enhancement and promotion of values to the public as an aim; here, time is required in order to change people's thinking in relation to the site. More practically, in terms of promoting the significance of contemporary values, the aims of a management plan should necessarily consider matters of interpretation. This is because interpretation covers all approaches, methods and/or means of delivering and promoting the significance of archaeological resources (see Chapter 5.2.4).

*An activity, process, communication, or an effort to reveal, help, create, or enrich diverse meanings, significance, relationships, and understanding of archaeological resources. For instance, the Burra Charter defined 'interpretation' very comprehensively: 'Interpretation means all the ways of presenting the cultural significance of a place' (Australia ICOMOS 1999, Article 1.17 from Chapter 5.2.4)*

For instance, buried archaeological sites often require some visual display for the representation of their values, including reconstruction, restoration or maintenance (see Chapter 5.2.6). All these activities should be carried out for the promotion of the significance of a site to the wider stakeholders, rather than simply displaying the evidence of the past to people who are already interested in the site.

#### 6.3.3.3 *Short-term goals*

Short-term goals require only a relatively short time scale and one that is specific. In terms of the values of an archaeological site, these are most closely related to traditional values, and to the display of the physical evidence.

Archaeological sites are a very useful tool with which to communicate values to the public. It is those traditional values, which have already been agreed upon or formed by experts, which should, perhaps, be communicated first. Not surprisingly, as it belongs to the same overarching context as the aims and interpretation, the short-term goals are related to the presentation of an archaeological site, which is defined as 'the carefully planned communication of

interpretive content through the arrangement of interpretive information, physical access, and interpretive infrastructure at a cultural heritage site' (ICMAH 2008, 2 in Chapter 5.2.4).

	Approach	Focused value	Management context
Vision	Long-term approach	All values	Vision of organisation
Aim	Medium-term approach	Contemporary values	Interpretation
Short-term goals	Short-term approach	Traditional values	Presentation

Figure 90: Key approaches for the vision, aims and short-term-goals.

#### 6.4 Stage 3. Assessment: value assessment (What)

This stage is a process of responding to issues concerning the 'What' (Chapter 2.4) in a broad perspective. It also contributes to solving the management issues and challenges with respect archaeological resources in South Korea (mentioned in Chapter 4.5). In the sequence of the management model of this research, the process of '*Assessment*' follows on from the '*Identifying*' stage. In this light, the critical goal of this stage is one of making clear and rational decisions within the management plan, against the backdrop of the questions; 'what types of values are important in a buried archaeological site?' and 'how important are they?'. The answers to these questions will take the form of a Statement of Significance, and may include recourse to a system by which the diverse values are measured in terms of their relative weighting. The planners should bear in mind is that the



Statement of Significance is not a full account of all the values included in an archaeological site. As with the term, 'significance', it explains and delivers the primary reasons why the archaeological site is important, rather than listing all of the relevant values and meanings of the import of the site. The Statement is able to express the site's significance concisely and clearly for all relevant stakeholders. An assessment of the values that may - possibly - be included in the site is made to this end, with the significance abstracted from the values; this process can be called 'assessment' (Figure 91).

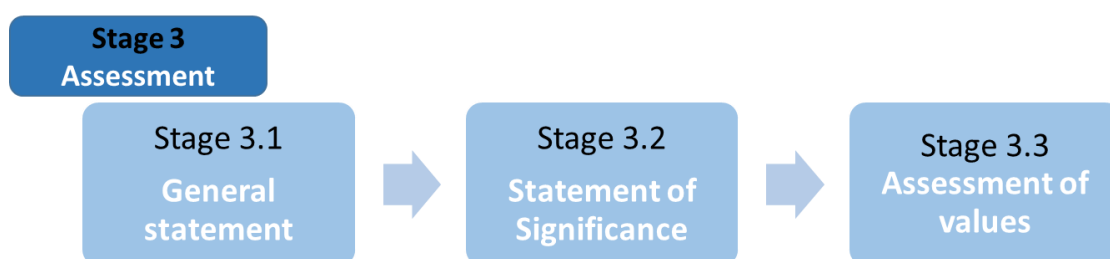


Figure 91: Stage 3 Assessment.

#### 6.4.1 The assessment of values

In arriving at the significance of buried archaeological sites, the assessment of values takes advantage of two broad processes: a general assessment and an assessment of values. The former focuses on understanding the current condition of the site based on possible factual information and its evaluation. Although this is likely to overlap with the documentation, it is not simply a process of recording the facts. Rather, the process includes the evaluation and analysis of the factual information related to the site. In fact, this assessment system has been developed by organisations that are responsible for the

management of archaeological resources, such as governmental bodies, that mainly deal with the designation of systems (e.g. the Department of Environment in England; Darvill 1987, 33-5; Hardesty and Little 2000). Figure 91 has been developed from the current South Korean (see Chapter 2.4.1) and English systems<sup>10</sup> (Department of Environment in England; Darvill 1987, 33-5). These organisations and scholars have applied the system to various types of archaeological resources. This research, however, focuses on a buried type of archaeological site as a major concern.

As depicted in Figure 92, many different aspects ought to be subject to assessment. With the exception of group value, all assessment items tend to draw attention to the current condition of the archaeological site. Thus, these are general assessment items. By contrast, group value necessarily requires the evaluation of the diverse meanings of the site, and necessarily requires a more complicated assessment. Thus, this assessment constitutes an assessment of value.

Assessment items	Description
Period	It is a basic consideration to identify the site. In academic research using the periodization by CHA, the period can be categorised into 11 periods.
Type	The type of archaeological site can often illustrate the meaning, value and significance abstractly. Although the

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<sup>10</sup> The reason why this research employs the English system, though it seems to be old approaches, the current South Korean system which is used for produce Figure 91, has similar context with English system.

	types can be divided into the following categories, they can also often be mixed. The types are suggested based on academic studies and categorization by CHA.
<b>Survival/condition</b>	This means the current condition of an archaeological site both above and below ground. It is a crucial consideration and needs to be assessed in relation to its present condition.
<b>Documentation</b>	In principle, it covers all written records including historic records and previous investigation records. Often buried archaeological sites are reburied for their protection after investigations. In this case, the report is a critical resource to identify the survival, condition and potential of the site.
<b>Potential</b>	Due to various reasons, such as delicacy, complexity, and the scale of a buried archaeological site, it is difficult to identify the entire site. Accordingly, some key information related to the site can be produced by archaeologists' projections.
<b>Rarity</b>	When buried archaeological sites are categorized by their period and type, there is a range of rarity. A certain type or period of site can be scarce or there may be multiple presences. A particular site may typify a site of a certain period. For this reason, it is a critical consideration to make a decision. This is not, however, simply to take account of rarity; it should include the local, regional and national context.
<b>Fragility/vulnerability</b>	It is highly important to build up a protection strategy. This can include the extent or degree of the fragility of a site itself, and it also includes the possibility that the situation will lead to further damage.
<b>Group value</b>	The value of a single archaeological site can be greatly enhanced by association with a group of related contemporary people. Often the desire for protection varies between different groups of people. Accordingly, the most important aim of the management plan is to negotiate with interest groups.

Figure 92: General criteria for Statement of Significance.

## 6.4.2 General Assessment

### 6.4.2.1 *Period and type*

This is the most basic and essential information pertaining to an archaeological site. Generally, in South Korea, archaeological sites are named with their location, period and type of the site. The name represents the critical nature and characteristics of the site in very abstract terms. For instance, in one of my case study sites, *Jeongokri*, the full title of the site is 'Jeongokri Palaeolithic Site'. It means that the site is located at *Jeongokri*, and it pertains to the Palaeolithic period. In the same vein, another case study site, *Sosadong*, has the full title of 'Sosadong Bronze Age settlement'. The name indicates that the site is located at *Sosadong*, dates to the Bronze Age, and was a site or prehistoric residence. However, it should be noted that sites often have multiple layers of remains, spanning different periods or types. In other words, there are different periods and different types in a single site. The name of the site should be arrived at so as to represent the most significant features and/or the general nature of the site.

10,000BC	1,500BC	500BC	AD0	AD300	
Palaeolithic	Neolithic	Bronze Age	Early Iron Age & late Bronze Age	Samhan Period	Three Kingdoms Period
Prehistoric Period in Korea					
Subcategories	Subcategories	Subcategories		Subcategories	Subcategories
Early	Early	Early		Around 40	Gaya
Middle	Middle	Middle		states	Goguryeo
Late	Late	Late			Beakje
					Shilla

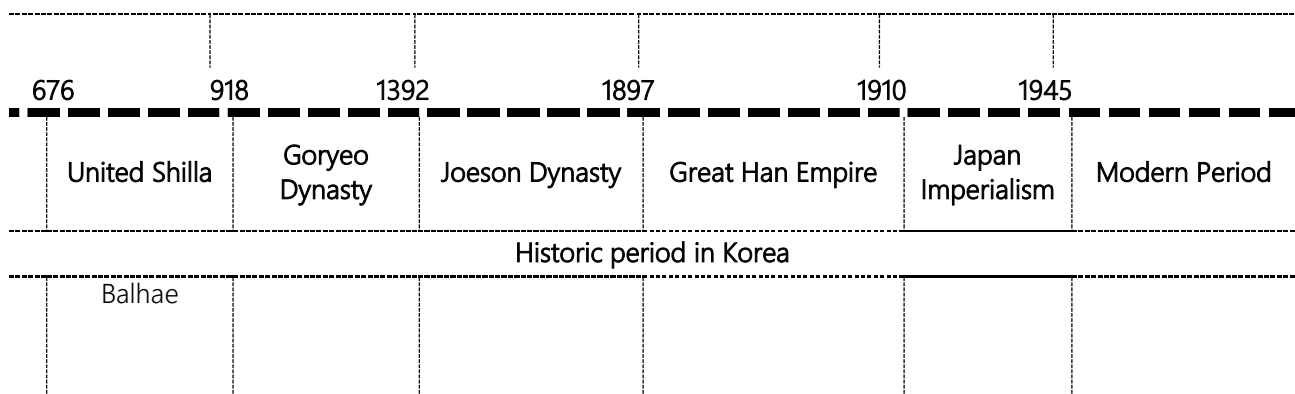


Figure 93: Periodization of Kore (edited form CHA and Barnes (2015)).

Within South Korean archaeology there is general agreement as regards periodization, on the basis of academic research into chronology (see Figure 93). By contrast, the typology of archaeological sites remains relatively ambiguous on account of sites' diversity. The CHA has also developed categories for their management procedures. To date, these categories are the most widely accepted. Thus, this research will also use the CHA's categories alongside Barnes' chronology (Barnes 2015, xvi-xvii) (see Figure 94).

Type	Sub-type	Explanation
Living residence	Residence Architect of residence Modern residence	This type covers a wide range of remains related to human habitation from a settlement of the prehistoric period to an individual building in modern times.
Tomb	Tomb Royal tomb	A royal tomb can be defined as a tomb constructed for kings and the royal family from the Three Kingdom period to the Great Han Empire.
Industry	Agriculture Manufacture	This covers all remains that pertained to the production of

	Ceramic industry Fishing, salt manufacture Mining Modern industry	goods for daily living including manufacture place and facility, tools, land use, techniques, etc.
<b>Religion &amp; belief</b>	Folk Belief Buddhism Catholic Christian	In general, there is a division into 3 religions: Buddhism, Catholicism and Christianity. However, there has been a long and marked history of folk belief since prehistoric times.
<b>Site of relics, distribution of cultural site</b>		This type of site includes unknown characteristics of a site, though it can be deduced from artefacts discovered on the ground or partly exposed remains.
<b>Politics and military</b>	Royal palace Governmental office Wall Fortress	A royal palace is a living residence for the royal family. It has a different meaning from that of the residential sites more generally. Other types of sites include those built for particular political and military uses.

Figure 94: Type of archaeological sites defined in South Korean law system.

#### 6.4.2.2 *Survival/condition, Documentation and Potential*

The current physical scale and condition of a buried archaeological site is extremely important because it represents the key and basic element through which the importance and significance of an archaeological resource might be measured, and as such acts as the foundations for subsequent strategies in the resource's management planning. At the same time, this is a very difficult process due to the typically 'invisible' nature of buried sites. The above-ground survival of a site which is already visible is recorded in the documentation stage.

In this step, therefore, the potential and possibility of the visible remains should be considered on the basis of archaeologists' professional experience. This step is so important because the decision to undertake further excavation relies heavily on the assessment that is made, with it acting as the primary information that is used for decision making.

Documenting information regarding buried archaeological sites is a critical issue that goes beyond its survival or preservation. In this step, the documented information has a narrower meaning than that of the information used in the documentation stage. It focuses on the information that proves and identifies the site's physical existence, such as the archaeological investigation report, including the excavation report. With this information, the potential of the site's survival can be more clearly analysed, as well as offering grounds for further action at the site.

The use of a visual map represents a useful starting point in any assessment of the importance of the site's survival and its documentation. Firstly, factual information about above-ground survival as well as information discovered by previous investigations, may be plotted. Secondly, the possible extent of a site's survival can also be illustrated on the map, with different degrees of certainty as analysed by archaeologists – noted. For this mapping procedure, a digital type of map, such as the Geography Information System, enables information to be repeatedly updated. The primary reason that the possible extent is marked by

different degrees is that it is helpful to understand the scale and current condition of a site. In addition, the map is a useful point of reference for decisions about further excavations, which often represents an essential, or, at least, important part of the management plan for a buried archaeological site. The decision-making standard is adopted using the same context of conservation work as that shown in the authenticity and conservation works of Chapter 5.2.6.

This standard can be applied to the above ground survival and the information discovered by previous investigations, as well as the site's potential as analysed by archaeologists.

Degree of survival condition	Possibility and state
Good	It is expected to give enough information on the original state of the site in the past. The state requires maintenance or repair accordingly.
Medium-good	
Medium	It is expected to yield insufficient information on the original state. The state requires some new materials and techniques accordingly.
Medium-poor	
Poor	It is expected to yield poor information on the original state. The state requires guesswork accordingly.

Figure 95: Criteria to assess survival/condition and documentation.

#### 6.4.2.3 *Rarity*

Regarding the information needed for an analytic approach, 'rarity' is the most important dimension. This is because the first concern must be the number of



similar or identical sites that exist, when deciding the significance of any given archaeological site. Ideally one would protect all past remains, however this is almost impossible in the real world. Perhaps, therefore, the first question to be decided is essentially whether the site should be protected or not. For the answer to that question, the first consideration should be 'rarity'. Whether a site is extremely rare, or is the only existing example of its kind, is likely to be relatively easy to ascertain. Often, however, this assessment becomes more difficult in the absence of comparative analysis, particularly where sites are not quite so rare. In addition, assessments of rarity should take locality into account. The rarity of a certain site or type of a site can differ according to area, such as the local, regional, or national level; in other words, the site may be representative to a greater or lesser degree depending on the area level considered. This idea has often been developed to use in a system of designation; for instance, in terms of area level, the South Korean designation system has broadly four categories; regional, provincial, national and international. Each level concerns the significance of a site as well as the responsible governmental organisation.

Another consideration when assessing a site's rarity is its representativeness. In many cases, rarity cannot be assessed easily or simply by a quantitative approach, such as the number of similar or identical sites. In order to assess the rarity, therefore, a qualitative perspective is also necessary. Often sites of a similar or identical nature exist in different area levels, and in such cases, the

rarity should take into account the representativeness of any given site among such sites. Even if an archaeological site is not rare, another critical concern is whether the site is representative of a similar or identical type of archaeological site. To sum up, rarity should be assessed according to the area level and the site's representativeness (see Figure 96).

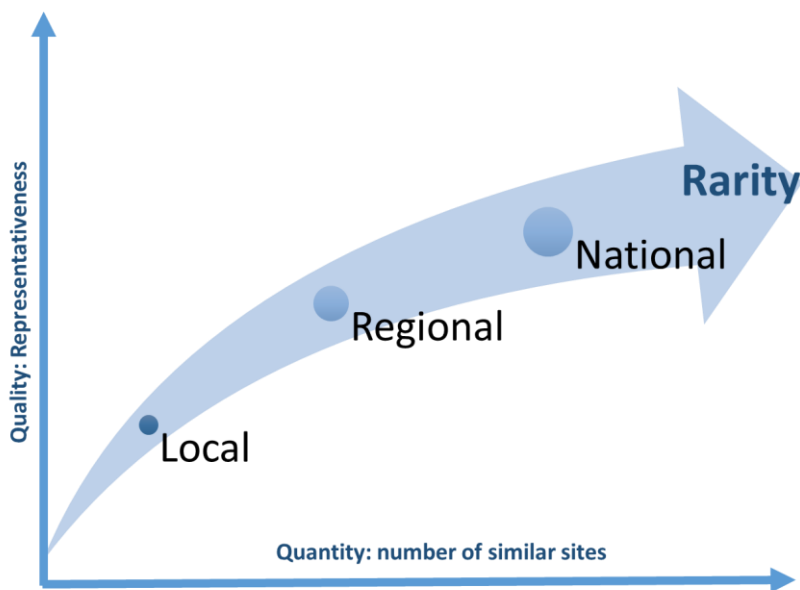


Figure 96: Diagram to decide rarity.

#### 6.4.2.4 *Fragility/vulnerability*

The fragility of buried archaeological sites in South Korea requires special consideration due to both the nature of the sites, and the South Korean environment, which is hot and wet climate in summer and has a rainy season, followed by a cold and dry climate in winter. Buried sites necessitate the employment of excavation techniques in order to identify the extent of the site, which inevitably causes damage. This means that buried sites are a particularly fragile type of archaeological resource. Buried sites, however, have different

levels of fragility depending on the materials and the environment. For instance, in South Korea many prehistoric archaeological sites and artefacts are built from, or comprise of, earthen materials; for instance at *Sosadong*, the Bronze Age houses are a form of pit, with an upper structure that has vanished, and so are likely to be extremely fragile. Moreover, with the exception of certain stone tools (e.g. see Figure 38), many of the artefacts discovered during the excavations are made of earthen material. Accordingly, these sites and/or artefacts quickly begin to deteriorate once they have been artificially exposed.

As such, an assessment of the fragility of buried sites constitutes an essential part of the development of a protection strategy. For an effective protection strategy, it is important to carefully consider the resource's fragility. Across a buried site, for example, remains may vary in terms of their degree of fragility; a buried part may be better preserved than an exposed area, for example. In addition, earthen material is inherently more fragile than stone or metalwork. Environmental factors are also a critical dimension of a site's fragility, and should be considered in combination with an assessment of the site's nature. . These environmental factors include aspects of the natural environment (such as weather), land use, the human activities and so forth. It is good practice to record this information in map form, as is the case for the GIS database managed by the local governments in England, and to include aspects of survival/condition and documentation & potential information (e.g. Richards 2009 21-42).

### 6.4.3 Topology of a group of values for assessment

In the contemporary field of Archaeological Resource Management, the most important assessment is that of value. Although professionals have long recognized that there are multiple types of values in relation to archaeological sites, the most significant recent development in the discipline has been a growing awareness of the more diverse types of values, and their relationships with an archaeological site's meaning, as indicated in Figure 89. Consequently, assessment has become more difficult and complicated. In order to assess such diverse values effectively and rationally, this research must attempt a typology of these values, and then suggest criteria for their assessment, in particular, criteria that relate to buried archaeological sites in South Korea. The development of the former depends on the context outlined in Chapter 2.4.2: traditional and contemporary value.

#### 6.4.3.1 *Traditional value and contemporary value*

In order to assess a group of values that are related to a buried archaeological site, it is necessary to arrive at a typology of values. As stated in Chapter 2.4.2, the establishment of a typology of values is regarded by many of those scholars and organisations that are responsible for the management of archaeological resources as an essential first step in the assessment process (e.g. Mason 1999; Demas 2000 in Getty Conservation Institute and Darvill 1987; 1995 in English Heritage). This research, which runs in parallel with those perspectives previously cited, has attempted to divide the values into two major categories in Chapter

2.4.2; 'Traditional value' and 'Contemporary value'. Scholars and organisations involved in archaeological resource management and conservation have gradually drawn attention to the need for a typology for the former. Consequently, a general typology has already been established that divides traditional values into their constituent parts. In the Burra Charter aesthetic value, historical and cultural value, scientific value, social value and spiritual value are detailed; while Mason (2002, 10-13) lists socio-cultural values as historic value, cultural/symbolic value, political value, social value, spiritual/ religious value and aesthetic value. Although these classifications do not precisely coincide across all typologies, the principal contexts of the typology provide common ground. The latter, 'contemporary value', however, is still somewhat ambiguous. For instance, the Burra charter fails to detail the specific types of value or conceptions which correspond with the conception of 'contemporary value' detailed in this research, while the 'economic value' of Mason (2002) only partially coincides with the notion of 'contemporary value' described.

In order to arrive at a typology for the assessment of values, this research - first and foremost - reconsiders all of the types of value suggested by relevant scholars or organizations (e.g.; Riegl 1982; Lipe 1984; Pearson and Sullivan 1995; Frey 1997; English Heritage 1997; Burra Charter 1999; Mason 2002; and NWS Heritage Office 2009); in doing so they are divided into two categories in this research, either traditional or contemporary value, using the context mentioned in Chapter 2.4.1.2. More importantly, this research focuses on arriving at an

account and explanation of each type of value as it relates to buried archaeological sites. These are unlikely to represent entirely new conceptions, since the suggested definitions for the typology have been reached through broad academic agreement. However, it is necessary to reframe this agreement for three reasons: first, because different names are attributed to the same values, second, because the association between the various values differ in their detail, and third, because this research emphasizes the importance of values in relation to buried archaeological sites.

Thus, this research synthesizes the aforementioned definitions and accounts, and rearranges them (see Figure 97). Not all of the types of values depicted in Figure 97 and Figure 92 are relevant to assessment of the values of buried archaeological sites, the nature and the characteristics of such sites may be outside of the remit of particular values. Nevertheless, it is useful to consider as many of the various types of value as possible, outlining why they are “not assessed” or are of “zero value”. It is a good approach, therefore, to draw up a list of the various types of values for buried archaeological sites in all of their diversity. The distinctions which make possible a rational assessment of each value are important for the purpose of this research, although it is accepted that values will often overlap, or be closely interrelated. Figure 97 shows the typology of the value assessment of buried archaeological sites. The typology below is reproduced with reference to existing typologies (e.g.; Reigl 1982; Lipe 1984;

Pearson and Sullivan 1995; Frey 1997; English Heritage 1997; Burra Charter 1999; Mason and Avrami 2000; Mason 2002; and NWS Heritage Office 2002).

Traditional value	
<b>Historic Value</b>	The value associated with the site or a part of the site that aids the understanding of the past life, such as that of an historic figure, phase or activity, special event, celebration, oral history or legend as well as day-to-day life. Buried archaeological sites are particularly useful sources of critical information about the pre-literary era.
<b>Evidential value</b>	Evidential value derives from the physical remains or genetic lines that have been inherited from the past, such that it helps us to understand the past.
<b>Aesthetic Value</b>	This is the emotional value of an archaeological site. Due to the nature of buried archaeological sites, they may be in the form of a ruin or else little may be visible. However, the ruin itself has sensory qualities or accords with the natural surroundings of a site. In spite of their invisibility, these qualities can appeal to senses such as hearing, touching, smelling and tasting, thus providing Aesthetic value.
<b>Academic &amp; Research Value</b>	This value relates to a site's potential to yield information about past human activities. It includes the information gained through archaeological research, and the possibility that further knowledge about the past might be gained in the future. This is likely to be the most important value of a buried archaeological site due to the typical nature of these sites. Buried sites usually have much potential to provide information about the past when they are excavated, and when the excavation data is accumulated.
Contemporary value	
<b>Social Value</b>	As a form of social resource which has the potential to facilitate social connections, networks and other relationships, and to support community activities or traditions in the present, which are separate to the site's historic or symbolic role. These may include recreation, markets, picnics, ball games and so on.
<b>Educational Value</b>	The value of teaching the present young generation about the past, and the enjoyment derived from learning about the past gained by all generations.

<b>Economic Value</b>	Directly measurable monetary value, which can easily be assigned a price, such as the cost of land, admission fees, and the wages of workers. Also, indirectly measurable monetary value such as the contribution made to the local economy by site visitors.
<b>Symbolic Value</b>	This is those shared feelings, thoughts and ideas developed by a group of people about a site over time. Accordingly, the site functions as a place to stimulate, maintain and/or represent group identity and other social relationships, that are emergent through association with a site in the present.
<b>Religious Value</b>	Is integral to the beliefs or practices of a religious group in the present. For religious value, the place can perform a religious function such as a religious ritual.

Figure 97: Typology of values of an archaeological site for the assessment.

#### 6.4.3.2 *Traditional value*

##### A. Historic value

Historic value is a central and basic tenet of archaeological resources in general. Archaeologists professionally gather data from an archaeological resource in order to better understand the human past. Not surprisingly, this is particularly important and valuable in the case of a buried archaeological site. Many of the buried archaeological sites of South Korea were formed in the prehistoric period, and - as such - there is little or no relevant literary record to help understand the human past, making the archaeological record even more crucial. Notably, the literary record about Korea begins from the Samhan Period, A.D 0 (see Figure 93), while the records of this period are relatively few, and relate to those records made during the course of Chinese history (Barnes 2001, 1-3). The literary record by Koreans extends into Three Kingdoms Period, but it was produced in 12<sup>th</sup> century in the Goryeo Dynasty; moreover, these records are incomplete. Before



this period, buried archaeological sites are the only material to understand Korean history. Even in the historic era, for which a literary record exists, it is relatively sparse and often insufficient for purposes of understanding the human past. Hence, the information provided by archaeological sites helps us to understand the past and fill the gaps.

In spite of the importance of historic value, this is a value that is often difficult to assess because of the nature of buried archaeological sites. In order to assess historic value, for instance, English Heritage defined two qualities of the value: *illustrative* and *associative*. The former is defined as the perception of a place (site) as a link between past and present peoples. The later, '*associative*', can mean a particular resonance that an archaeological site has with a momentous past event or an historic feature (English Heritage 2008, 28-29). Both of these qualities are usually accessed through the visible dimensions of the site.

According to this perspective, buried archaeological sites may be regarded as having less or weaker historic value compared to other sites because of their invisibility. Nevertheless, buried sites can yield value on account of the intellectual or emotional reactions or associations, between people and the site, that they are capable of stimulating.

Pearson and Sullivan (1995, 139-141), meanwhile, have defined the attributes of historic values as the dynamics of change, the reasons for events, and the broad contexts within which things happen, rather than regarding physical remains as

static objects frozen in time. These qualities and attributes deserve to be explored in greater depth; however, these associations with buried archaeological sites are not always desirable. For instance, the qualities English Heritage notes place a significant emphasis on visibility, while Pearson and Sullivan's view originates from architectural heritage, which is located on - rather than in - the ground. In order to assess the historic value of the buried archaeological sites of South Korea, it is necessary to return to their basic historical meaning. In other words, 'to what degree does a site present a particular event or historic feature and its role in the past in such a way that appeals to both the intellect and emotions?' It is, in other words, that which triggers the historical imagination (Pearson and Sullivan re-quoted from Helen Proudfoot). As such, historic value may overlap with evidential value, but it also places a strong focus on physical evidence through which an understanding of the past may be arrived at: representing the meaning of the place historically. In order to define historic value, or else to distinguish it from evidential value, it is useful to return to the definitions of 'interpretation' and 'presentation' described in chapter 5.2.4. Accordingly, historic value can be regarded as the value of a resource or material for interpretation, while evidential value is the value of a resource for purposes of presentation. Historic value, so construed, can be referred to as the meaning of an archaeological site as interpreted by the public, with the archaeological evidence an excellent physical source of the presentation.

## B. Evidential value

Evidential value is highly important, and represents the central value within the group of values around which an archaeological site coalesces. The basic and fundamental role of archaeology is to discover physical evidence with which to understand the human past, and to present this to the people of the present. In this sense, evidential value is, firstly, those physical remains from the past that yield information about the human past. Not surprisingly, evidential value is closely related to historic value; evidential value may be complementary, coincidental, or contrary, to the historic value. In the foremost case, historic value may be heavily supported by the evidential value. In order to find the vital historic value of an important historic event and its relationship with a specific place, it is necessary to draw upon the physical evidence. More often, in cases of historic value, physical evidence must precede the exploration of buried archaeological sites. Next, evidential value and historic value may coincide; this is usually the case where the buried archaeological site dates to the prehistoric period, i.e. the period before a South Korean textual record. In general, archaeological sites of high evidential value provide well preserved qualitative and quantitative evidence; consequently, historic value emerges out of the physical evidence; thus, both values develop in parallel. Last, the relationship between the two - historical and evidential value - may be contradictory. Often, important events are referred to across multiple historic records in the absence of clear physical evidence. Or else a significant artefact may be discovered

without any point of reference in the historic record. In both cases, the historic value and the evidential value are directly opposed.

In terms of the physical integrity of evidential value, high evidential value enables a site to clearly present, explain, and display the past. In this context, buried archaeological sites tend to be excavated in order to yield the physical information that can better contribute to our understanding of the past, whether for the public or for the professionals. Evidential value is arguably the most important source in the development of an understanding about the past, so far as the public are concerned. In general, professionals are better able to understand the past without physical or visible imagery, because of the professional knowledge that they already possess; while - in contrast - the public understanding of the past is often strongly reliant upon the physical evidence, which they can see, feel, touch, and even smell. Usually, the public are keen to seek out the evidential value of a site upon, possible physical evidence of the past.

### **C. Aesthetic value**

Aesthetic value, in principle, constitutes sensory perception of the form, design, scale, colour, and so on, of an archaeological site. Although difficult to grasp in precisely factual terms, these dimensions indisputably still exist. Often, they are heavily reliant on the visible part of a site; in the case of buried archaeological

sites, however, they are even more obscure, though the ruined part of a site may allow for some degree of reconstruction. Nevertheless, for the reasons described, the aesthetic value of buried archaeological sites is somewhat different to the value held for other forms of archaeological sites located above, or stood on, the ground. Archaeological sites on the ground are closely related to the view of the surrounding area. Accordingly, the aesthetic value of a buried archaeological site should be considered and assessed with its landscape in mind. It should be regarded as an important value of archaeological sites, despite the difficulties described, because the public are often attracted to visit sites on account of their sensory and emotional value, as well as by the traditional - academic - values previously noted.

However, aesthetic value is not just related to the beauty of the scenery or landscape in a painterly sense, but it is also associated with a site's broader social meaning. For instance, the rarity of the landscape may demarcate its importance as a symbol to the local public; if, in the past, human power contributed to form the landscape, its emotional value to the public may be higher. For this reason, a range of accounts should be considered in assessments of aesthetic value. For the assessment of aesthetic value, Pearson and Sullivan (1995, 134-138) have suggested workable (see Figure 98).

<b>Abstract quality</b>	Scenic or visual quality. The presence of particularly vivid, distinguished, uncommon or rare features, or a combination of features, derived from the landscape's abstract attributes
<b>Evocative Responses</b>	The ability of the landscape area to evoke particularly strong responses in the public and in expert assessors.

<b>Meaning</b>	The existence of a long-standing special meaning of the landscape for the public, and the ability of the landscape to convey special meaning to viewers, visitors, or the community. This aspect may also be shared with social, historic, and at times scientific values.
<b>Landmark quality</b>	The landscape unit or a feature within it stands out and is recognized by the broader community. It may be a source of identifying a locality.
<b>Landscape integrity</b>	A strong consistency of the natural and / or cultural character of a landscape or place with little degradation of this character, is an aesthetic quality that has importance to people

Figure 98: Pearson and Sullivan' accounts for aesthetic value (Pearson and Sullivan 1995, 134-138).

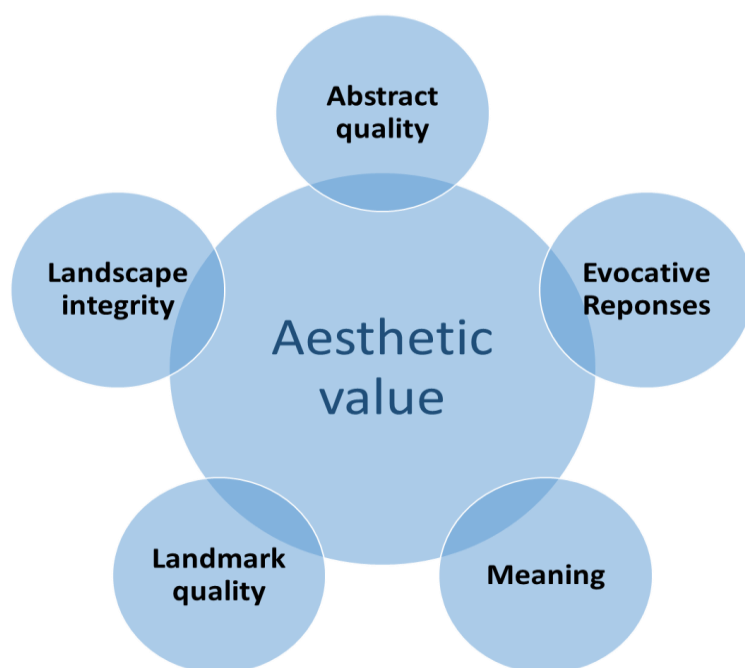


Figure 99: Assessing aesthetic value based on Pearson and Sullivan' accounts (Pearson and Sullivan 1995, 134-138).

#### D. Academic and research value

Academic research is often the initial information-gathering step in the management of archaeological resources; concomitantly, academic and research value is at the core of archaeological resources' value. In other words, the academic and research value of an archaeological site is heavily reliant on their potential to provide information about the past. Because buried sites carry

significant potential for the discovery of novel information due to factors such as their 'invisibility' (see Chapter 1.2), they could be regarded as all the more important because of their status as such. Academic and research value may be seen as the most distinctive aspect of buried sites; such values are often regarded as inherently traditional on account of the professional context in which they are embedded. Although future studies of any archaeological site have the potential to provide information about the past, buried sites have much more potential lying - literally - under the ground. Additional academic exploration involves fieldwork through which new discoveries may be made; a context through which archaeological excavation, analysis, and so on, may take place. All of these activities are the occupation of professionals in the field, and the academic and research value should, accordingly, be regarded as a typical traditional value that is identified by professionals

It should be borne in mind, when considering academic and research value, that this focus - on potential and possibility - does not concern values that are immediately verifiable. It is fundamental that buried archaeological sites are not excavated solely to satisfy archaeologists' desire to verify their own academic thinking. For instance, *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011* in South Korea, in common with other international charters and legal frameworks, only allows archaeological excavation in highly exceptional cases (Article 11);

1. *For academic research*
2. *For the maintenance of a site*
3. *For unavoidable construction projects, as acknowledged by presidential decree*
4. *For a site at risk*

In fact, as described Figure 3 in Chapter 1.4, the majority of archaeological excavations have been carried out for 'for unavoidable construction projects, as acknowledged by presidential decree ', or - in other words - rescue archaeology. While the number of excavations in general had significantly increased by the end of 20<sup>th</sup> century and into the early of 21<sup>st</sup> century in South Korea, the other categories of excavation only amount to around 10% of the total. As such, one would anticipate that the number of excavations would dramatically decrease at some point in the future, when much of the rescue archaeology necessarily being undertaken today has been completed; this is the pattern that has been followed by most of the developed countries in the western world. In South Korea, the total cost for rescue archaeology has already reached its peak (in 2009), and has recently decreased year on year; for instance, the total cost went down by half over the period 2009 to 2015 (See Figure 3, CHA webpage). In other words, the need to verify the potential of archaeological resources through excavation is a passing phase caused by rescue archaeology, rather than representing a continuous trend. In long- term perspective, the knowledge and information gathered for academic value will not be provided by archaeological excavation in future decades, but will take advantage of further research on the



existing information based on archaeological potential. The properly management of archaeological sites and their associated documentation is likely to represent an important source of academic and research value in the future.

#### 6.4.3.3 *Contemporary value*

##### **A. Social value**

The term 'social value' can cover a very wide range of values that fall under the category 'contemporary value' as an all-embracing term. As a result, their definition may be ambiguous, and is often difficult to capture precisely, with the result that it is often underestimated or ignored. Social value must, therefore, be narrowed down for a clear assessment of its content to take place, lest it overlap too greatly with historic or symbolic value. It should also be understood, as the name suggests, that in 'contemporary' or 'social' value the social aspect focuses on the current meaning of the site to the public at large; it places attention on not what the site was, but what the site is now. This social value can be distinguished from the historic value on account of its foregrounding of the thought processes of people in the present, rather than emphasizing the value of past events in relation to the (pre)historic feature. In addition, social value emphasizes archaeological sites' current role, going beyond the intrinsic nature of the archaeological site; instead value is perceived in terms of the potential of the resource for recreation, shops, picnics, ball-games, and so on. Almost inevitably, buried archaeological sites are used for a different purpose to their original intention; the social value focuses on this present role of the place for

the present people, as a force for public good. For instance, Korea's ancestors lived at *Jeongokri* site, which subsequently became farmland for the localities near residents, and then became a historic park after the management plan was put in place. For the 'Insider', the latest memory or meaning of the site is not its Palaeolithic origins, although this may well be part of their understanding of *Jeongokri*, but its use value as to be somewhere related to their daily life. The social value focuses on the value of the site today, which is evaluated by contemporary local residents who are associated with the site in a variety of ways. The social value in this research refers to this current meaning, which is shared by the people today, through ongoing activities and relationships with the site.

However, the contemporary social activities that form the social values of a site are not always positive. Some activities in the vicinity of buried archaeological sites negatively impact on the condition of these sites; but this is most often ignored because of the lack of connection between the historical or archaeological meaning of the site and its current function; as such destruction from buildings, damage from cultivation and obliteration by visitors, which are all very real risks. The management planning process is likely to need to tackle issues or problems for the site that relate to its contemporary value, and most management plans have suggested ways to prevent this negative impact, while maintaining social activities in a balanced way. For instance, management plans often suggest site development as a social resource, which may incorporate an

ecological park, historic theme park or other tourist resources. These approaches promote the social value of sites, while, at the same time ensuring that its protection is an essential matter of concern. Management plans have focused on the delicate balance between use and protection, a balance that represents one of the latest topics of interest in the field of Archaeological Resource Management (see Chapter 1.1). Nevertheless, it must be said that these management plans have been designed with the intention of promoting the social value of the site.

## **B. Educational value**

Educational value is one of the key contemporary values of an archaeological resource, and one on which recent attention has been placed (see Chapter 2.5.1.2) because of its role in teaching people about their past. In many countries in the world, history or archaeology is a part of the regular school curriculum; educational value concerns, first and foremost, teaching future generations about their country's past history. Predominantly, it is information gathered from a site's traditional value that is used for this purpose, with the archaeological resources themselves deployed as a teaching device. In a broad sense, a site's educational value entails its contribution to a future sense of belonging and identity. In terms of its role as a teaching resource, the transformation of archaeological resources to become active and interactive, for example through an experience programme for students on an archaeological site (e.g. *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Festival in Chapter 3.1.1.2 and Figure 29). In addition, the concern of

the educational domain in fields related archaeological resources and cultural heritage has recently been enlarged: from teaching the younger generation, to teaching people who are interested in their past whatever their generation. As a result, a number of institutions, ranging from museums to archaeological sites, have placed more attention on the engagement of the public at large. Those responsible for archaeological sites have drawn more attention to their capacity to provide living evidence of the past. This differs from the past tendency to focus on resources use in teaching, to enjoyment of the resources. Consequently, this tendency is closely related to the social value discussed in the previous chapter. In other words, the educational value of archaeological resources has been formed through the active and interactive involvement of a widening circle of stakeholders.

From this new vantage point on educational value, it is necessary to consider the interpretation and presentation of the archaeological site. Unfortunately, it is unclear as to whether the educational value of buried archaeological sites has been fully understood. In the definition in Figure 97, for instance, the site is a teaching resource, but its relative invisibility entails that evidence of the past is not presented in an especially sophisticated way. In addition, as mentioned in relation to academic and research value, the information related to buried sites often relies on archaeological potential, and sometimes even archaeological guess-work, neither of which are especially helpful in terms of teaching about the past. For these reasons, it is fair to say that the buried sites are often

underestimated in terms of their educational value; in order to improve the educational value, or assess this value, the interpretation and presentation should be a matter of increased concern, and more specific issues of accessibility must also be considered. The advantage of archaeological sites as an educational resource lies in their potential to see, touch and feel the past. For this, it is necessary for interpretation and presentation strategies to be well planned and organised, and to incorporate tactics for easy accessibility.

### **C. Economic value**

Economic value is the contemporary value that is afforded most attention in South Korean rescue archaeology. As the definition in Figure 97 indicates, as well as considerations of the early period of Archaeological Resource Management, economic value usually meant the directly measurable monetary value (see chapter 2.3.1.1). The financial value of archaeological resources was commonly given as justification for their protection. This represents one of the most controversial issues in managing archaeological sites (see Chapter 4.4.1); for instance, in terms of conflict between development and the protection of archaeological resources. However, the economic value is not simply assessed in a measurable way: for instance, Jameson (2008, 431) requoted Poor (2007) as 'If we assume archaeological resources possess public goods characteristics', (see chapter 2.3.1), 'then we cannot solely rely on 'marker-based' valuation analyses to estimate the true value of these resource to society'. In the same vein, economic value can be defined as a more embracing dimension of

contemporary value, such as the notion of socio-economic value in Chapter 2.4.1.2 of this research. The definition of economic value in this research pays attention to directly measurable monetary value, however it also encompasses indirect monetary value as a facet of contemporary value as a whole.

Perhaps, it is easiest to understand economic value based on monetary value, such as the land price, of the site, as well as income derived from the site, because it can be quantitatively measured. However, this is sometimes extremely controversial. For instance, one complaint of landowners at *Jeongokri* is that they cannot execute their ownership rights, and that the price of their land decreased when it was identified as being within the remit of a significant archaeological site (designated as National Historic Site 268). Land prices decreased because of the legal restrictions placed on the site for its protection; this depreciation undoubtedly continued to be the case until the site management plan was put in place. However, the site's economic value since its implementation should be re-assessed and re-measured. In simple terms, the land's directly measurable economic value has decreased because direct income from the museum is limited, while a large part of the management plan's budget was spent on the site during the implementation stage, including the purchase of land and construction of a museum.

Moreover, statistical data for the number of visitors to *Jeongokri* museum is scarce. According to a personal memorandum between a member of museum

staff and a media source, approximately 120,000 people have visited the site per year since the museum opened in 2011 (Jeongok Prehistoric Museum website). Simply calculations of revenue from tickets amounts to £2,400,000 (£20/person x 120,000); however, set against the total budget for the implementation of the plan, £492,313,800 (see Chapter 4.3.1.1) – including purchasing the land and building a museum – two hundred years of visitors, at this rate, would be needed in order to balance outlay and income, regardless of subsequent running costs.

Thus, indirectly measurable factors should be foregrounded, despite being difficult to identify and assess, for instance contributions to the local economy. Visitors to *Jeongokri* museum, for instance, spent money not only on the admission fee to the museum, but also on museum and local souvenirs, food, transportation, accommodation and so on; all of these categories of consumption are vital to the local economy. When assessing the economic value of an archaeological site, this indirectly measurable effect is must be carefully considered as the directly measurable value behind a site.

#### **D. Symbolic value**

The symbolic value of an archaeological site requires careful protection. In a broad sense, it is likely to overlap with the social value; however there are key differences. It can be said that the symbolic value is more closely related to the identity of a certain group of people, rather than the social value that is related to the use of the site as a social resource. Social value emphasizes the positive

social benefit that can be derived from an archaeological site, while symbolic value represents a feeling or emotion that is shared by a group of people. Social value can be formed in different ways and to different extents and degrees; symbolic value is shared among a certain group of people. In the same context, social value can be promoted tactically and by artificial means over a shorter time period compared to symbolic value, which requires a longer-term strategic approach. If the site represents the identity of a certain group of people or else the local public in a certain area, all those people who have a sense of belonging to the group in question will strongly support the protection of the site. A number of scholars have addressed the fundamental role of heritage, including archaeological resources, in identity and its protection (see Chapter 1.1); while it is symbolic value that gives people a sense of belonging. In other words, site protection or management requires a huge amount of time and/or budget, and without direct physical returns such as directly measurable economic value; nonetheless society should bear this cost in order to protect their identity.

In spite of the importance and power of symbolic value, unfortunately, the symbolic value in buried archaeological sites is often weaker than - or underestimated versus - that which relates to other types of archaeological resources. Perhaps, this is because these sites do not play a clear contemporary role that is related to the original function; for instance, many buried archaeological sites are ruins that are generally invisible above-ground. However, this also represents a reason why planning and management should be carefully



considered; some archaeological sites are of symbolic value to the people whether the remains are well preserved under the ground or not, such as might be the case for an ancient capital city, an ancient monument, battle field or a royal palace. The religious or ritual value is seldom identified easily in buried sites, (this will be explored in the next part), but it is sometimes sufficient - in terms of the creation of identity - that it was erected for symbolic purposes in the first place. For example, though *Joengokri* site was used as farmland in recent contemporary history, the public are able to distinguish stone tools discovered at the site from so-called 'natural' stones; as the oldest Palaeolithic site in Korea the site drew attention from those outside professional and archaeological circles. Recently, the site has given the local public a pride in their shared ownership of an archaeological site that might demonstrate the origins of the Korean people.

#### E. Religious value

Although religious value is potentially a very powerful factor in the management and protection of an archaeological site, it is virtually absent from buried archaeological sites in South Korea. For a strong religious value, sites should be alive and religious rituals should be performed there in the present. Only a small number of buried archaeological sites can be related, on any ongoing basis, to religion. Of the eleven religions in South Korea (including three major religions; Buddhism, Protestantism, and Roman Catholicism (see **Figure 100**); only Buddhism was pre-dates modern South Korea. Catholicism emerged out of

academic studies dating to the 18<sup>th</sup> century and Protestantism in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, for example. As such it should be regarded as unsurprising that most of the buried sites affiliated with religion are Buddhist temples, since Buddhism was established in 3<sup>rd</sup> century South Korea. These sites are not, however, currently functioning as temples; 'buried' in this context means that religious rituals were lost as the temples were ruined. When such sites are excavated and relevant remains are discovered it is symbolic, rather than religious, value that is foregrounded. It is possible that the believers of Buddhism have found meaning in the excavated site and artefacts, and that even for the others, the Buddhist culture has played an important role in Korean history. However, this still feels different to pure religious meaning; the site and artefacts are not used for religious ritual and so cannot hold a primary association with religious value. To sum up, in a broad sense, there are few buried archaeological sites related to religion in South Korea due to the fact that most religions arrived or were formed in the modern period, with the exception of Buddhism. Even those buried sites related to Buddhism have mostly lost their original function and are ruined. Consequently, religious value at these sites is a relatively lowly concern. Rather, the sites represent the history of religion as part of the symbolic value.

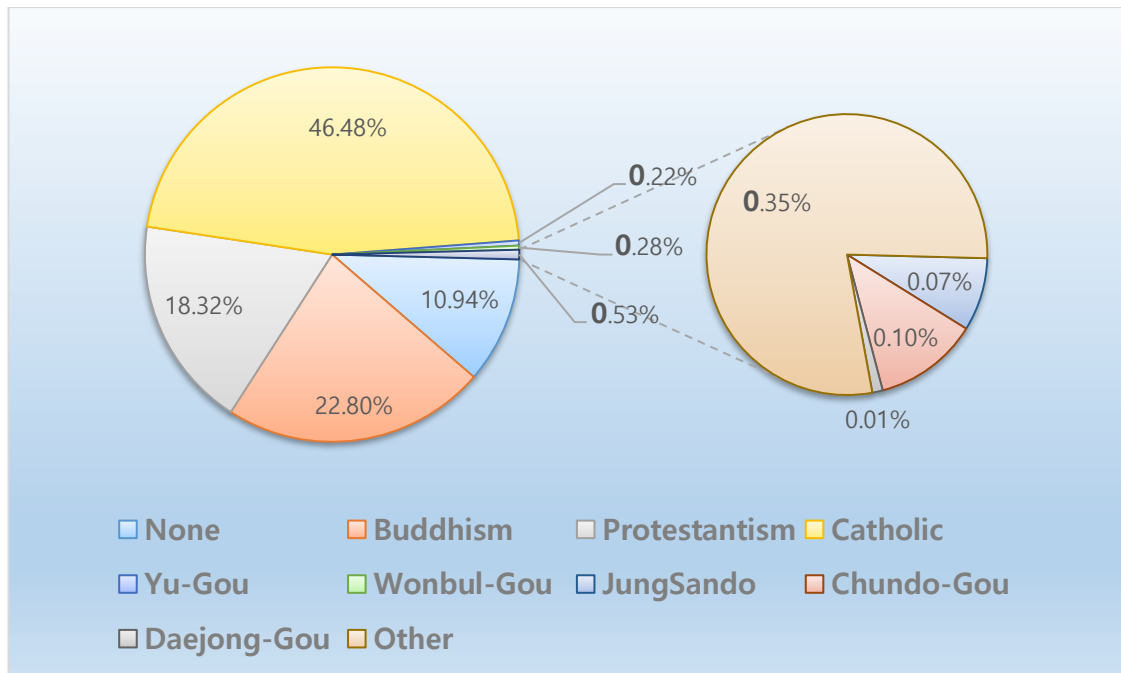


Figure 100: Static of religions in South Korea in 2011 (from Statistics Korea web page).

#### 6.4.4 General principles for Statement of Significance

##### 6.4.4.1 *Justifying the management*

Many professionals have already posed the statement of significance as an essential part of management planning for archaeological resources.

Consequently, in most planning models, the statement of significance plays an important role in justifying the reasons for the site's protection and management in a broad sense. The significance may simply justify why the site deserves to be protected and managed. What is important is that the statement of significance is not simply used as a justification tool for resource managers, professionals and governments, as in Chapter 4.4.1. The statement should address the significance in a way that presents the reasoning to a wider group of stakeholders; most of all, to the Insider. This is because management, as the combined work that is

taken to include conservation, protection, interpretation, presentation and so on, needs a huge amount of time and money, a considerable proportion of which comes from the taxpayers' pocket, who are both 'Insiders' and Outsiders. Seen in *Jeongokri*, for instance, the entire cost of implementing the plan was covered by the local and national governmental budget. Thus, the management plan, especially the statement of significance, should be written in such a way so as to justify the management of the site to those stakeholders, who may have to resolve conflicts over time and budget. In this context, the statement of significance should embed the fact that the time and budget allocated in the management plan are of public benefit.

In particular, and on account of the nature of buried archaeological sites (see Chapter 1.2), the site's significance should be communicated to the public, the Insider and Outsider, with care and clarity. As stated in Chapter 1, in comparative terms it is often most difficult-to-link buried sites that are comparatively more difficult to link with the public, who are not in possession of professional knowledge relating to the site. Unarguably, those academics have to provide information about sites. In terms of the management planning; the Insiders-Academic, Resource Managers and Government; should give the information and reasoning underpinning their judgement to the management plan in the form of the statement of significance and 'Leading Group' planning (see Chapter 6.2.2). For this, diverse aspects of buried sites should be examined for the statement. This is a good approach to prevent the plans overlooking the partial

values of a site among diverse values, or putting too much weight on market-based economic value (see Chapter 4.5.1).

#### 6.4.4.2 *Correlating with mission statement*

In addition, in order to ensure a logical management context, the statement significance should correlate with the mission statement in the previous stage of the management planning. For instance, the vision of the management should be built upon the significance of the site, itself based on a comprehensive understanding, unless it becomes clear that it is not achievable even in the future. The aims and short-term goals of the management plan should be relevant also to the significance of the site. As noted previously, they are set up to protect, promote, or enhance, the significance of the site. In this logical context, interpretation and presentation approaches should be decided on in the later stage of management. For instance, if an archaeological site has as its vision achieving World Heritage List in the next 30 years, the significance of the site is supposed to meet the 'Outstanding Universal Value' in the World Heritage Convention. For this, the significant value, which is not yet represented, will be interpreted in order to emphasize and promote this as the aim of the plan. In accord with this purpose, the part of the site in which its value can be presented should be conserved and displayed.

#### 6.4.4.3 *Clarity and rationale*

Of the basic approaches to the statement of significance of an archaeological site, the most significant is that it should clearly address the reason for the management as a formal reflection of the current assessment of its value. It is not a simple, nor a comprehensive, ambiguous statement such as 'the site is highly important evidence of the past'. Rather it must be a more specific, concrete and rational reason for why the site is important and significant. For this, the significance should be addressed based on the data in the documentation. All of the information related to the values of the site should already have been gathered in the documentation stage, at least as much as is practicable. The statement of significance is prepared by abstracting the documented information, which represents the significance of the archaeological site. . It is not a narrative to describe all of the meanings or values of the site, but is a succinct and meaningful phrase which expresses the key values of the site.

#### 6.4.4.4 *Understanding contemporary value*

The importance of having a statement of significance in the practice of Archaeological Resource Management, has been highlighted as a critical means of assessing the value of an archaeological site. For instance, according to the Burra Charter by Australia ICOMOS in 1999, 'significance' was defined as '..... values for past, present and future generations' (Person and Sullivan 1995, 126; it is also in Canadian Historic Place (2006, 11)). It means that the significance of an archaeological site may include the potential values that will be given to the site

by the future public as well as the historical or cultural meanings that the site itself has today. In this light, an important point is that the Statement of Significance should address 'what value is meaningful and valuable to whom' with physical or tangible components of an archaeological site. As seen in Chapter 4.5.1.1, in fact, it has to be produced on the basis of the historical or cultural meanings of physical materials because the management or and the conservation team have focused on these. In the modern conception of Archaeological Resource Management, the public, who have often attribute different meanings to the site, has become increasingly important. Thus, it is crucial to identify which values are important, as well as to whom. Throughout this, it may help to increase the awareness of the public (Canada's Historic Park 2006, 04).

#### 6.4.5 Approaches for the Statement of Significance

##### 6.4.5.1 *Clear and easy wording*

In order to meet such general principles for the statement of significance, the wording should be clear and easy to understand. 'Easy wording' means that the statement should be understandable to all the stakeholders, both Insider and Outsider, who may not be in possession of professional knowledge and/or else who have less knowledge than other professionals. Professionals in general and academics in particular, take advantage of specialist terminology for sophisticated communication between one another. This might be reasonable. Often, however, Academics also use their own technical terminology in the

statement of the management, which is then rendered hard to follow for the public. This is problematic. First of all, it could cause miscommunication between different members of the planning team. As seen in Chapter 6.2.2, the leading team for management planning consists of the Insider, who is vital member of the general public, as well as the Academic and the Manager, who are possibly working in relevant fields. Not surprisingly there are gaps between them. The professional terminology can make it difficult for the Insider to understand the significance of the site. Grima (2002, 86) has mentioned that archaeologists and the public are using a 'different language' and 'presenting different issues'. In the case of managing buried archaeological sites, the difference would be greater because it has been highly professionalized recently. The field inevitably requires a highly-skilled and professional team such as excavation and conservation specialists. Consequently, the terminology has become professionalized; one consequence of this is to make the gap between the Academic and Insider even wider in terms of the language used during communication. Perhaps, the language and wording is not an issue, provided it is confined to those who are directly involved. The statement of significance is not aimed at the professionals relevant to the site, but it aims to provide the reasons for the management to the public.

#### 6.4.5.2 *Brief and abstract statement*

The statement of significance should be a concise statement in order to represent the most significant values at play in relation to any given



archaeological site; in doing so, a narrow, top-down approach has not been suggested. Other than creating a narrative referring to all the values and meanings of an archaeological site, 'significance' in this context, refers to the most valuable part of the site whether intangible or tangible. Accordingly the statement should mention the significant values of the site in abstract form, rather than a long narrative of all of the values that might have come into play, though it is hard to define a specific length for all. Instead, it is recommended that the statement should reference the documented data as a supplement, which is also a useful mode of inspiring confidence in the statement. For the brief and abstract statement, manners of expression that concisely foreground information about significant values are very useful, including tables, charts, figures and etc. Perhaps, the statement of significance for buried archaeological sites should be driven by those archaeological or historical values and academic values that pertain to the nature of the sites; this is also the case for much of the archaeological excavation data. The statement should be abstracted from the data rather than take advantage of all the data. If data is necessary in order to address the significance, referencing of data or tables, charts, and figures of well-organized information represents a good way of presenting the data alongside a concise statement.

#### *6.4.5.3 Define scale or boundary of the site*

The scale or boundary of the site relates to the intellectual scope of the site, as well as to its physical range. As previously described, a clear and concise

statement, Statement of Significance, should be used to define the scale and boundary of the site. Buried archaeological sites may be difficult to define because of features of their nature such as invisibility' however legal boundaries or buffer-zones for archaeological resources are defined in South Korea in terms of the *Cultural Heritage Protection Law 1972*; e.g. a radius of 500m for a national designated site, 300m for a regionally designated site and 100m for local, precisely for this reason. Clearly, this buffer-zone does not address the real scale and boundary of the site, rather, it represents a useful short-hand approach. In this model, information related to the boundary or a site's allotted buffer-zone should be defined in the documentation. The intellectual boundary, meanwhile, requires assessment in terms of the site's values: it is too imprecise, in terms of a site's physical safeguarding, to simply draw a line on a map.

In order to define the significance in accordance with the physical scale including materials, formation, location and spatial configuration of the site, the definition of 'landscape, surrounding, and site' in Chapter 5.2.2 represents a useful approach to the site's significance, as it relates to traditional values. As previously noted, in the case of buried archaeological sites, significance was often defined on the basis of historic and academic values. These values tend to rely upon the physical evidence, and this evidence has a physical scale and a boundary. Thus, when the significance of a site is highlighted, the boundary to which its significance relates, or which it impacts, should be defined in the statement.

Moving on to contemporary value, the scale and boundary may be transformed

'to whom' including its recognition as such by a certain group of people, locally, regionally, nationally or even internationally.

#### 6.4.5.4 *Written by the type of value*

Thus, it is good practice to use the typology of values of the archaeological resources in the statement of significance, in order that the diverse values implicated in the resources by diverse stakeholders, from professionals to non-professionals, are readily understood. Many organisations and professionals have already suggested possible parameters for the statement (e.g. Burra Charter (1999), Canadian Historic Place (2006), Kerr (1996)). All of these guides take advantage of the most general and brief information as the statement's starting point, which may include physical attributes and materials. In the model used in this research, however, such information will be referred to in the introduction section of the management plan report, which derives from the site's documentation. Thus, it is not necessary to repeat this information here. Instead, the Statement of Significance should begin with a typology of values, including traditional value and contemporary value, as has already been suggested. It is necessary to emphasize those contemporary, as well as traditional, values, because - in South Korea - the former often receive less attention and / or are underestimate and overlooked in favour of those historic and academic values of which 'traditional value' is comprised.

#### 6.4.5.5 *Using comparative and quantitative approaches*

In order to arrive at a statement of significance that uses the typology of values as its point of departure, a comparative and quantitative approach is useful. The former is most helpful with respect to the site's traditional value, and the latter is helpful in assessing its contemporary value. In principle, significance is difficult to measure by numeric assessment, and - as such - this is not a requirement of the statement of significance, though it is necessary to figure out the most significant feature of any given archaeological site. For instance, historic value can be extracted from the historic events in the site's past, and the value of a specific event can be identified by comparison with similar sites that are embedded in the same historic context. This procedure is manifestly reliant on a comparative approach, which takes into account similar characteristic sites. Although comparative data need not necessarily all be written into the statement, comparative data analysis is useful tool for abstracting the site's significance. In the same context, despite the difficulties inherent in measuring value, a quantitative approach can be helpful for assessments of contemporary value. The number of visitors to the site, for instance, does not show the extent of value directly; but a large number of visitors can demonstrate the significance of the site to the public, while the attributes of visitors, such as local residents, national, or international visitors, can indicate the range of people who share in this value.

#### 6.4.6 Assessment as a decision making tool – Measuring Criteria

As described, the assessment values of an archaeological site should be rendered in terms of a statement significance, which is an essential part and process of management planning. In addition, the rational assessment of value is a useful tool for decision-making related to the management of a site; in particular, it can make the decision-making process more transparent. Notably less transparent decision-making processes and tools in South Korea have caused subsequent issues and challenges in the management of archaeological sites (see Chapter 2.4.2).

The purpose of this chapter is to suggest a rational process by which diverse values might be measured. Considering the diversity of values in archaeological sites, the two types of values detailed in the previous Chapter, 6.4.3, are also useful for present purposes. It is necessary to build up the assessment criteria to be employed for each type of value. These criteria are the steps taken in relation to the definition of values shown in Chapter 6.4.3.1, and represent a question and answer format for measuring standards, rather than an entirely new approach to their assessment.

Whether assessing traditional value or contemporary value, regional distinctiveness represents an essential part of the criteria. This is because all values differ depending on their degree of significance and are not shared or recognised equally by all people. For this reason, most designation systems, from

which the assessment system was originally developed (see Chapter 2.4.3) contain tiered levels of heritage based on the regional context, such as local, regional or national heritage. South Korea also has a regionally based designation system; national, provincial, and city heritage, in descending order. This system works in parallel with the administrative unit in South Korea. A regional division is also applied in this research. To sum up, the regional categories in this research are 'national', 'provincial' and 'local'. However, in the overall assessment of value, this research attempts to situate the assessment at an international level. Increases in the number of World Heritage sites in general is likely to have a knock-on effect in those South Korean sites that are designated as of international importance; a tiered system which invokes international value is, therefore, entirely reasonable and efficacious.

#### 6.4.6.1 *Traditional value assessment criteria*

The assessment and measurement of traditional values is a serial process that begins from the question, 'To what degree does a site contribute to the discovery of past history?' This question is related to all traditional values. In order to deal with this all-embracing question, it is first necessary to structure its assessment along temporal lines, to; the past, present and future. Historic and evidential value concern the past, such as that which has happened on the site or remains at the site. Aesthetic value examines the present time - how much historical scenery has been retained, and the emotional feelings at the present time. Academic and research value relates to the future potential of the site. It

can also be said that the former three values are related to factual information; while the latter value is about future possibilities

### **A. Historic value**

Under the embracing question of traditional value, a key criterion with which to measure the historic value is the importance of a past event or feature that is found within site. 'Event or feature' can cover various historic features (see Figure 97); and their 'importance' can also be measured by rarity or uniqueness. Importantly, this is different to physical integrity; it is close to the meaning of the place where a significant event took place. For instance, when a buried archaeological site is excavated, one would expect the physical remains to be damaged vis-à-vis their original condition. Nevertheless, the site may be high in historic value should excavations uncover evidence of an important historic event, irrespective of the physical integrity of this evidence. In other words, historic value is not to show or display the past, but it is an attribute for the interpretation of the historic meaning of the site (see the definition of interpretation in Chapter 5.2.4 and the typology of value in Chapter 6.4.3). The primary reason for defining historic value separately to physical integrity is that physical integrity will be measured under evidential value. In addition, buried archaeological sites are most usually incomplete in their condition, and can even be invisible on the surface. Even in the case of a well-preserved site, a site cannot be exposed purely for presentation purposes, with reburial for protection after

the excavation a commonly employed strategy. Thus, physical integrity cannot fully represent the historic value of buried sites.

In terms of regional assessment, the first matter of concern is the regional extent of the historic event or feature. Its definition depends on whether the event or the feature was (or related to) a special or official ceremony, or a royal palace or tomb at national level. This is, however, not always clear. In particular, the residential sites, for instance, *Jeongokri* or *Sosadong* Bronze age settlements, may be difficult to allocate to a regional division. In this case, it is necessary to rely upon archaeological studies. For instance, *Jeongokri* is a crucial site for research into the origin of Korean in the Korean peninsula, and even in north-east Asia; and it could thus be described as 'national'. Perhaps, *Jeongokri* site deserves to be regarded as 'International' in value due to the its significance for world history, as one of the exceptional Palaeolithic sites of East Asia; given the discovery of the first Acheulian-type hand axes in East Asia and the role of this discovery in weakening Movius' hypothesis (see Chapter 3.1.1, Figure 25 and Figure 112). *Sosadong*, meanwhile, represents the Bronze Age living pattern known across the South-west part of the Korean peninsula (Lee Hwa-Jong and Kang Bung-Hak 2008, 684-685). Although archaeologists may perceive the importance of the site for Korean Bronze Age culture, it is fair to say that the site's value is 'provincial' because it is typically representative of a specific locality; such as the cultural contact between the south part and middle part of the Korean peninsula in the Bronze Age. Thus, assessments should make a



measurement of uniqueness, uncommonness, or rarity that are based on the regional extent of the historic event or else the feature that the archaeological site represents.

### **B. Evidential value**

As outlined in Chapter 6.4.3, evidential value is reliant on the physical integrity of a site, and is interrelated with the site historic value. In fact, the physical integrity of an archaeological site has already been explored in the general assessment of this model (see Chapter 6.4.1). As a decision-making tool, measurement of evidential value needs a more concrete footing. This is because it is not simply the case that physically well-preserved sites have a high evidential value in an equal and even manner. Although it may be true to say that a well-preserved site is more valuable for the understanding of the past, in fact, an archaeological site should be representative of a particular historic event or feature of a particular period, time, or moment; this intersection with historic value is necessary for evidential value to be high. All of these historic events or features must also be assessed and measured with reference to the regional tiers mentioned above.

As with the nature of the evidential value previously noted, criteria are necessarily placed on the physical integrity of a site, and on using the conceptions of artefact, site, surrounding and landscape (see Chapter 5.2.2) for concrete measurement. It is also important to measure the degree to which these are unique, uncommon or rare. Along with the integrity of an individual

artefact, the integrity of an artefactual 'set' should also receive careful consideration. Archaeological artefacts that can represent various past activities, and diverse artefacts are thus necessary. Thus, a set of artefacts represents crucial evidence with which to identify human activities, in addition to any singular significance that may relate to an individual artefact. In order for archaeological artefacts to be regarded as constituting significant evidence, they should relate to the same context as the archaeological site. Both the artefact and the site are mutually constitutive in terms of the meaning, value and significance of each other. For instance, a prehistoric village site should contain the necessary structures for daily life within a settlement, and artefacts that provide evidence of activities relating to daily life; examinations of the scale and structure of an ancient tomb are reliant upon buried goods in order to identify the person who was buried. In addition, the site should be understood as a constituent part of its surroundings. Sometimes, the surroundings underpinned the choice of location for an archaeological site. Thus standards of measure should be employed in order to establish the degree to which the surroundings of the site are authentic.

### **C. Aesthetic value**

According to the notion defined in Chapter 6.4.3, aesthetic value is closely related an archaeological site's surrounding landscape. It can be said that value emerges out of the outstanding scenery of a site and that of its neighbouring area, as perceived through the senses. This appraisal is now, however, merely

reliant upon the beauty of the scenery. In terms of integrity, which is a basic standard of traditional value, the degree to which the atmosphere of an archaeological site is 'authentic' – or mirrors the atmosphere during which it was initially erected – is significant. If the aesthetic value is based upon current scenery, it should be posed in contemporary terms because sensory value is an attribute that is made by current people in current circumstances. The aesthetic value referred to here is one of historic atmosphere, which the current visitors to a site inhabit today. In summary, the basic condition for the measurement of aesthetic value is the authentic atmosphere of the site, surroundings and landscape, during the period which the site was inhabited.

Based on this the authentic atmosphere, aesthetic value is a sensory perception by the present people. This emphasis on the atmosphere and sensory perception is particularly important for buried archaeological sites (rather than on-the-ground resources). Even well preserved and highly significant sites are often invisible due to the typical nature of buried sites. Even when significant artefacts or sites are excavated, they are very often reburied for their own protection, while their artefacts are moved to a safe place. The surroundings and landscape, however, remain *in-situ*. Accordingly, the people can feel or recognise the site on the basis of these surroundings at the present time.

#### **D. Academic and Research Value**

For Academic and Research value, it is necessary to move the perspective taken to a narrower focus on the site and its artefacts. This is the value that relates to the discovery of past history at the present, or in the future, rather than the above traditional values that are formally situated in the past. The nature of academic and research value means that its elucidation is a professional task; in addition, it should be regarded as being strongly correlated with evidential value. In very simple terms, a site with high evidential value might have low academic and research value because the key discoveries have already taken place and contributed to the traditional value of the site. In the case of buried sites, however, the scale and depth of archaeological deposits may be very unpredictable compared with on-the-ground sites. Thus, academic and research value tends to be assessed more highly for the former category of site, on account of their buried potential.

It is partly fair to say that large-scale site with deep archaeological deposits contain, in purely quantitative terms, more potential for new discoveries; however the quality of the evidence linked to discovery potential, and the site's integrity, should also be taken into account. The land-use in the vicinity of buried archaeological sites is significant here; sites may have been used as farmland in a rural area, and even for building on or the construction of roads in an urban area. This means that the condition of the remains under the ground differ in terms of their scale and depth. As with the evidential value, the site and its artefacts must be well preserved for research and academic value to be high. In

addition, the potential to yield new archaeological information, relating to new periods or players, should be considered. It is clear that, in general, measuring archaeological potential is a complicated process that demands highly professionalized and experienced experts; something that is equally true of buried archaeological sites in South Korea. The basic standard with which to measure and gauge academic and research value must also be based on the uniqueness, uncommonness, and rarity of a site, with reference to the regional tiers discussed above.

#### 6.4.6.2 *Contemporary value*

In general, measuring of contemporary value are more difficult to assess than measurements of traditional value, because they are based upon the perceptions of those people with which an archaeological resource is associated; by way of contrast traditional value can be understood on the basis of physical archaeological evidence. Thus, contemporary value may be difficult to assess quantitatively; however, it is highly significant nonetheless because the main power behind and impetus for the management of resources is driven by this perception of contemporary people.

##### **A. Social value**

The notion of Social value in this research can be distinguished from traditional values by using temporal factors as a broad organising principle. As defined in Chapter 6.4.3.3, social value is driven by the meaning of the place that people

hold onto now, rather than what the place used to mean. The distinction between the contemporary meaning of a site and its historical or archaeological meaning entails close links with social - rather than the symbolic - value. In other words, social value comes from the current role of the place for the present people. Hence, the first question allied with social value should be 'who and how many people are interested in the site in terms of the current role of the place?' For buried archaeological site in South Korea, links between past and present by virtue of a historical event or feature of the past are rare. Nevertheless, the site can still have different roles and meaning for the present people and may, therefore, still be of social value. For instance, a buried archaeological site such as a prehistoric site is highly unlikely to still be used for its original purpose; indeed it may have been discovered or identified only recently. Present people's activities on the site, such as recreation, markets, picnics, ball games and so on, as a form of a social resource, however, remain important in assessments of social value. Attention should then be given to the strength of this relationship; thus, the social role of a site can be multifunctional. It may also be controversial; controversy may derive from broad conflicts between a site's traditional and contemporary value, or between historic value and social value, or even between different activities within its social value. It can be said that the former two controversies are readily identifiable (if they have not already been identified), such as those pertaining to the protection and use of the archaeological resources in relation to Archaeological Resource Management; by way of

contrast, the latter source of conflict is comparatively difficult to deal with. When measuring values as part of a decision-making process, therefore, these controversial activities should receive careful consideration. For this reason, the types of social activities taking place at a site, and the strength of their influence on the site, should be explored.

### **B. Educational value**

In terms of the vision of the management of archaeological resources for the protection of resources for future generations, education value is a central tenet of contemporary value. In general, therefore, it is important to measure 'how much does the site contribute to educate the younger generation about history and culture?' In modern society, however, such education should not be regarded as the sole purview of the younger generation, but as something for all generations. As with the populations of other developed countries, South Koreans' interest in history and culture has increased across the generations. Thus, the recent conception of the education value of archaeological resources relates to all member of the society. The number of visitors to a site is an important indicator for measurement of this value, because the archaeological site can provide a good opportunity for direct experience of an historic event or feature. In addition to such a quantitative approach, it is important to represent the educational value in the site's interpretation and presentation to visitors. If there are a large number of visitors to a site, and they are satisfied with their visit with little or no interpretation and presentation, the site may be primarily of

social, rather than educational value. Measuring visitor numbers is perhaps especially important for buried archaeological sites, because their interpretation and presentation is - typically - a difficult process on account of their invisibility. In order to be of educational value, these sites require well-organised interpretation strategies for the attribution of historic value and presentation strategies for evidential value. In order to measure the educational value of buried archaeological sites it is, therefore, important to examine these strategies and their use by both the younger generation and the rest of the population alike.

### **C. Economic value**

According to modern conceptions of Archaeological Resource Management, measurement of the economic value of an archaeological resource is a complicated task because definitions of value are sometimes very wide, and may extend to include all contemporary values. To avoid ambiguity, economic value here is defined as both directly and indirectly measurable monetary values. Not surprisingly, the former is comparatively easy to measure by a quantitative approach. Directly measurable factors ranging from the fixed property, such as the land price, to floating assets, such as entrance fee income, may be included. In addition, it is crucial to consider the outgoings related to the management of the resource. These statistics can be provided by the organization responsible for managing the archaeological site, such as the local government. The assessment



of directly measurable value, therefore, takes account of both the income and the outgoings related to the site.

For buried archaeological sites in South Korea, directly measurable economic value should carry less weight in assessing economic value because there is very likely to be an imbalance between the income and outgoings; in fact, very often there is a deficit (see, for instance, the *Jeongokri* case, Chapter 4.3.1.1 and 6.4.3.3) or such a measure is dominated by the monetary cost of rescue archaeology, as at *Sosadong*. In general, buried sites are often subject to different land usages from their original purpose; in addition, sites are mostly open air, without any prominent boundary. Accordingly, significant income sources such as entrance fees are usually lacking at these sites, and the minimal management cost is usually paid from a government budget. Although it can be said that the land alone may be of value as property, prices are lower than for comparable land in general, on account of the legal restrictions placed on these sites, with construction necessarily preceded by excavation, the cost of which must be paid by developers. Consequently, the economic value of buried archaeological sites is difficult to assess in directly measurable economic terms.

Accordingly, measuring the economic value of the buried archaeological sites in South Korea should take account of, and place weight on, indirectly measurable value. As defined in the Chapter 6.4.3.3, this includes the extent to which the site contributes to the promotion of the local economy, rather than entailing notions

of non-market value (Jameson 2008; Poor 2007). This is because other factors that relate to economic value, apart from the contribution to the local economy, are considered in terms of the site's contemporary value. In fact, indirectly measurable economic value is difficult to comprehend in quantitative terms. Visitor analysis is a critical approach and acts as a useful indicator not only for indirectly measurable value, but also for the directly measurable value, as noted above. More visitors mean more money is spent at the site and in the local area. However, the activity pattern of the visitors is a critical matter of concern in this respect. Where more time is spent at site, more money is likely to be spent (in the local area, as well as at the site). Along with these contributions, which principally come from Outsiders, the number of people who are involved in the management of the site, such as the Insider, Manager and Academic, represents a secondary indicator and relates to contributions to the local economy. To sum up, the measurement of the economic value of buried archaeological sites in South Korea should be weighted towards indirectly measurable economic value, since measurable value is an inadequate indicator of a site's real value or significance, on account of those factors details above.

#### **D. Symbolic value**

Although symbolic value is likely to overlap with social value in terms of its focus on the present people's perspective, it is more closely linked to the identity of a

certain group of people, as mentioned in Chapter 6.4.3.3. Symbolic value can, hence, be linked to the historic value of a site. It is fair to say that symbolic value is based upon particular historic or archaeological events in a site's past, and pertains to a group of those people who are associated with the event in question. 'Group' can be defined in various ways, but is typically rendered at regional level; it can nevertheless be local, provincial or national. Not surprisingly, the first question is 'which group or groups of people are linked to the site?' Identification of the group's remit is significant, for example, although royal tombs or palaces can be associated with all Korean people as part of their national identity, descendants of the royal family are more closely linked, in both practical and emotional terms, to the tombs. For instance, the Jeonju Lee Royal Family Association has performed traditional ceremonies at the palaces tombs in question (see <http://www.rfo.co.kr/jongmyo>), since the sites represent the family's identity. The second question, therefore, progresses to consider 'what kind of relationship there is between the group and the site'. Careful examination of this relationship is crucial because of possible conflicts between the interests of different groups' interests. Measurements of value are, thus, dependent on the following question: 'how strong is the relationship?'

In fact, strong or high symbolic value is an exceptional attribute of the buried archaeological sites of South Korea. Consequently, symbolic value, including other contemporary values, have often been ignored or underestimated; hence decisions tend to be made on the basis of academic or historic value and directly

measurable economic value (see Chapter 4.5.1.2). In spite of such practice, symbolic value cannot be ignored or underestimated, because it has much potential. The historic or academic value of buried archaeological sites indicates their potential symbolic value in representing the past history or culture of a certain group of people. Use of the aforementioned designation system as a decision-making tool, such as national, provincial, and local heritage (and it's similarly to that deployed elsewhere in the world) is indicative in this regard. Accordingly, *Jeongokri's* designation as a typical buried archaeological site (a 'National Historic Site') that is representative of Korean history and culture broadly, and yields information on the Korean ancestors in the Palaeolithic era specifically, represents a case in point. Although it is difficult to make a case that all South Korean's share in this symbolic attribution, the site nevertheless has the potential to be of nationally accepted symbolic value. In other words, the symbolic value can be formed out of other types of value, even if a buried archaeological site has little symbolic meaning to the public at present.

#### **E. Religious value**

In terms of the contemporary religious functions of a place, it is fair to say that most of the buried archaeological sites have lost their role as a centre of religious ritual. With the exception of Buddhism, the other two major religions of South Korea first emerged in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Consequently, very few buried

archaeological sites can be related to religious value, while even those buried sites related to Buddhism do not play a continued role in religious ritual today. Rare instances of buried sites linked to the religious activities in the prehistoric time have been discovered, however they have a weak relationship with the contemporary life of South Koreans'. Even if a buried site was used for religious activities in the past, their present meaning is closer to one of historic or symbolic value.

Traditional value	To what degree does a site contribute to discovering past history and culture?
<b>Historic Value</b>	<p>To what degree does a site present a particular event or historic feature and life in the past?</p> <p>To what degree are the events or historic features unique, uncommon or rare, and what is the past life in the above question in terms of a real perspective?</p> <p>Which regional category does the event or historic feature and the past life have?</p>
<b>Evidential Value</b>	<p>To what degree are the artefacts meaningful, valuable and significant for understanding the past?</p> <p>To what degree do the artefacts or a site present the particular event or historic feature and the past life?</p> <p>To what degree is the present surroundings meaningful, valuable and significant for understanding the past?</p> <p>To what degree do the surroundings present as authentic?</p>
<b>Aesthetic Value</b>	<p>To what degree does a site present the authentic atmosphere of the site, surroundings and landscape?</p> <p>To what degree do the people feel aesthetic value in the site, surroundings and landscape?</p>
<b>Academic &amp; Research Value</b>	<p>To what degree does a site presently extend in terms of both scale and depth?</p> <p>To what degree does a site expect to discover the archaeological information in both aspects of an artefact and site, both quantitatively and qualitatively?</p> <p>To what degree does a site hold discoveries of a new nature?</p>

<b>Contemporary value</b>	<b>To what extent does a site have a relationship with the present people and contribute to the quality of their life?</b>
<b>Social Value</b>	<p>To what extent do the public recognise the site?</p> <p>Is there a particular group of people who are associated with the site in terms of the historic event or feature to which it is linked, and how strong is this association?</p> <p>Does the site have any meaning or role as social capital and how strongly related is the site with these?</p>
<b>Educational Value</b>	<p>How many visitors are there to the site and what is the age group of the visitors and the purpose of their visits?</p> <p>Are the interpretation and presentation manners well-organised for visitors?</p> <p>Is the historic value of the site well delivered to visitors?</p>
<b>Economic Value</b>	<p>What do directly measurable values amount to in terms of the income and outcome?</p> <p>How valuable is a site as a fixed property?</p> <p>To what extent does a site contribute to promote the local, provincial or national economy?</p> <p>How many visitors are there per annum?</p> <p>How much time do the visitors spend on the site and in the local area?</p>
<b>Symbolic Value</b>	<p>What groups of people are linked with the site?</p> <p>What kind of relationship is there between the group and the site?</p> <p>How strong is this relationship?</p>
<b>Religious Value</b>	<p>What kind of religion is related to the site?</p> <p>Does the site continue to play a role for the religion concerned?</p>

Figure 101: Criteria for measuring values.

#### 6.4.7 Assessment as a decision making tool – Measuring System

The above criteria are intended for use as tool for rational and transparent decision-making, by a process of measuring and gauging the significance of buried archaeological sites. Whether assessing traditional or contemporary value, the regional tiers are the basic standards through which general significance may be measured, while the other standards offer a flexibility depending on the type of values they encompass. Figure 102 shows the basic form of the assessment

system deployed in this research in order to gauge a site's significance. The vertical axis represents the regional tiers that are applicable to South Korea; the local, provincial and national levels; while the horizontal axis depends on the type of value (indicated in the red box). This means, as mentioned in the previous chapter, that the former is the scale of the locality that a buried site can be used to represent; the latter employs a range of scales. The measuring standard for the horizontal axis operates in relation to the assessment criteria above (see Figure 103), which are then gauged by a grading system based on low-medium-high preciousness. This measuring system is a decision-making tool that aims to prioritise and ranking sites based on their significance. In this context, the figure represents the comparative significance of the buried archaeological site in general. Broadly, significance increases from the bottom-left to the top-right with the movement of the arrow depicted in Figure 102. On the vertical axis, the upper part refers to a wider region while the right-hand side of the horizontal axis represents heightened significance. For instance, the top-

right, which is of national high importance is more significant than the bottom left, which is a local site of low-level importance.

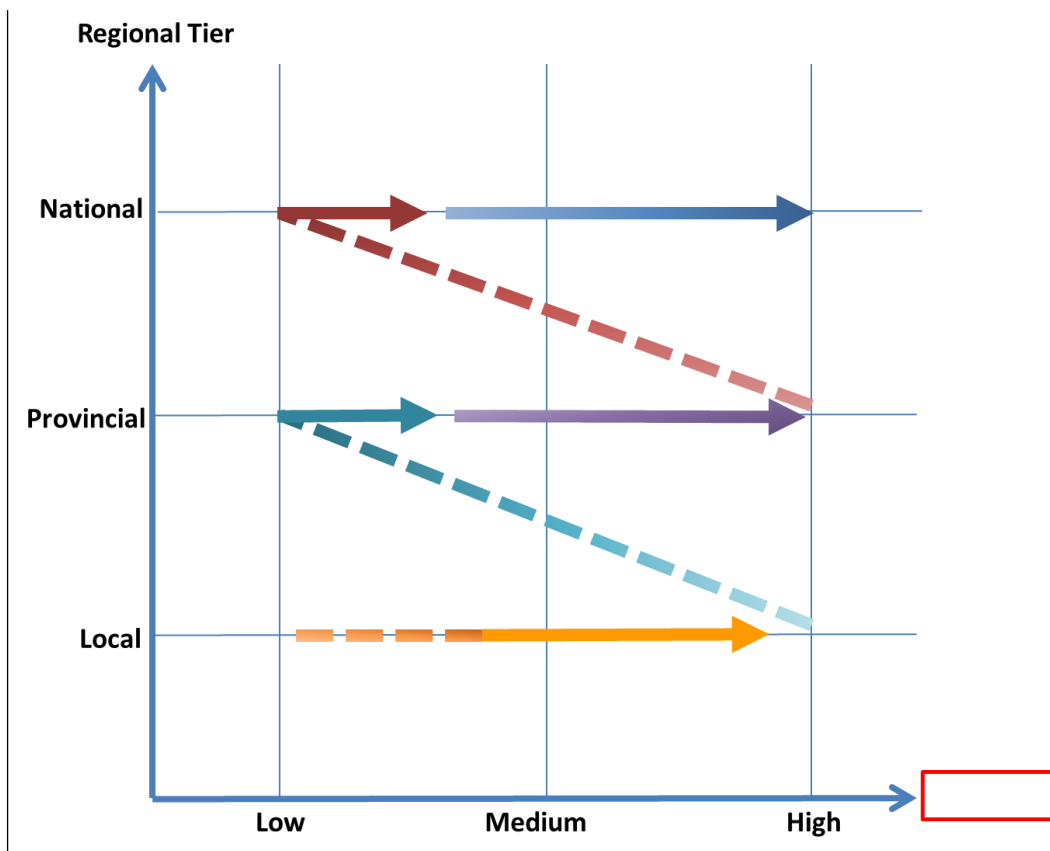


Figure 102: Basic measuring and gauging significance based on the regional tier.

#### 6.4.7.1 *Traditional value: Comparative approach*

Due to the nature of the traditional value of buried archaeological sites in South Korea, as well as the considerations for the assessment of their significance, this measurement is heavily reliant upon the work of professionals, as well as the information gathered during the documentation stage of the planning process. Any assessment necessarily requires a judgement of the extent of a site's significance, including the regional tiers and a grade-based assessment. In principle, any assessment of all of these measures should employ a comparative approach in order to gain a sophisticated result, because quantitative



assessment based on the allocation of numerical marks is not possible. For effective comparative analysis, this research has already suggested 'systemic collecting and storing data' as a principle of documentation (see Chapter 6.2.4), and the drawing up of value-type based documentation (see Chapter 6.2.5), produced in the form of a Statement of Significance (see Chapter 6.4.4). In terms of the comparative analysis, sites that yield large amounts of information are useful. For instance, the number of the same or similar type of archaeological site in a certain region represents key information when making decisions about allocation to a regional tier. The standards on the horizontal axis must also be assessed and measured using this comparative approach, for example by comparing all buried sites of a similar nature in the regional tier, or by comparison with an exemplary or classic buried site.

Traditional value	Example of horizontal axis
Historic Value	Uniqueness or rarity of the historic event or feature evidenced
Evidential value	Representativeness or typicality and integrity of the physical evidence
Aesthetic Value	Authenticity and integrity of the site, surroundings and landscape
Academic & Research Value	Future potential
Contemporary value	Example of horizontal axis
Social Value	Recognition or participation by the contemporary public
Educational Value	Usefulness for educating students and the public more generally
Economic Value	Market price and contribution to the economy
Symbolic Value	Recognition or association by the contemporary people
Religious Value	Contemporary

Figure 103: Measuring standards for the horizontal axis.

#### 6.4.7.2 *Contemporary value: visitor perspective*

In a broad sense, the assessment of contemporary values entails measuring the relationship between an archaeological site and the contemporary public. Obviously, this measurement should be based on an understanding of the perspectives of those who are associated with the site today. Visitor analysis is a helpful approach with which to gain an understanding of the 'heritage-visitor relationship' (Hall and McArthur 1998). In fact, this approach covers a wide range of indicators from issue-driven short term research to long-term monitoring, including the number, gender, age, purpose, and activities of visitors, or the form and impact of their visit, and so on; together this is highly useful information with which to measure contemporary value. Ideally, long-term monitoring of visitors should take place, and incorporate a wide range of perspectives, or else visitor data should form the basis of the management plan.

In reality, however, monitoring is extremely time-consuming; as a consequence, much of this data is lacking. Consequently, it is necessary and useful to carry out issue-driven visitor research, requiring only short-term monitoring, with the pertinent issues based upon those standards that are shown on the horizontal axis in Figure 103.

#### 6.4.7.3 *Grading criteria*

As a result of the measurement of the values, this research proposes five classes of grading criteria, based on the measuring system in Figure 102. The standards that are applied across the horizontal axis in Figure 103 are gauged by the

regional tiers on the vertical axis and incorporate three grades – low, medium and high –altogether. In order to use the assessment result as a decision-making tool, it adopts five different classes of significance; Exceptional, High, Moderate, Little and Intrusive<sup>11</sup> as originally suggested by Kerr (1990) and the New South Wales Heritage Council (NWS) (2009) (Figure 105). However, the key criteria employed here are developed out of the South Korean research context described. This five-class grading system can be used to measure individual value, as well as synthesizing these measurements in order to arrive at an overall assessment. The measurement of an individual value can provide a source for decision making in relation to specific issues and conflicts between the values concerned, while a synthesis of individual value measurements can be used for decisions that require comprehensive consideration. This will be explored in the next part.

Five classes of grade are developed in this research on the basis that such subdivision is necessary if decision-making on complicated issues is to be feasible. Moreover, the boundary of levels, Low, Medium and High often overlap; thus, the grading system incorporates adjacent lower and upper levels of significance. This is necessary because, for instance, a locally high-value site, may possibly be of low value at the provincial level even where it relates to an

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<sup>11</sup> According to New South Wales Heritage Council (2009, 11), 'Intrusive' means that 'Damaging to the items' heritage significance' and 'does not fulfil criteria for local or state listing'. In this research, it indicates the lowest grade of value in the assessment.

individual criterion; while a provincially-high value site may be of low-value nationally. Finally, a locally low-valued site could have very low meaning generally, while the significance of a nationally high-value site may extend into the international domain. Thus, the three-degree measuring system produces the five-class/grade criteria (Figure 104), while these grades correspond with 'International-National- Provincial-Local-Non-designated'. With this logical reasoning, the five grades aim to reflect the particularities of South Korean circumstances. Since the first World Heritage listing for South Korea, in 1995, a further ten sites have been listed, while the tentative list now stands at seventeen. In spite of such increases, South Korean professionals employ few internal criteria with which to make decisions related to the World Heritage list. In this research, the 'Exceptional' level corresponds with a site for potential inclusion on the World Heritage list. The 'Exceptional' level is set up to represent the highest degree of significance, whereas 'Intrusive' is set up for the opposite scenario. Ideally, all remains of the human past are worthy of protection (e.g. ICOMOS 1990), however, in reality even and equal safeguarding of all material remains is impossible - an impossibility that has recently received explicit recognition by professionals in the field of Archaeological Resource Management. In South Korea, professionals have not keep pace with this international trend; they have remained mired in the old discourse, something that has prevented the development of a systemic and clear assessment process.

This research has adopted an 'Intrusive' level (NWS 2009, 4) in the grading in order to take account of this wider disciplinary context.

Perhaps, measurement of an individual value of a buried archaeological site is relatively easy vis-à-vis the overall assessment. 'Interpretation and presentation' and 'public relationship' are set up as key indicators (Figure 105) in order to better address this complexity. The former represents traditional value and the latter represents contemporary value. Accordingly, both should exist in relation to an understanding of sub-type of values of traditional and contemporary value. As defined in the previous chapter, for instance, interpretation is closely related to historic value, and presentation to evidential value, aesthetic value and the academic and research value, with the latter based on future potential. The strength of the relationship between an archaeological site and the public is a key indicator of contemporary value.

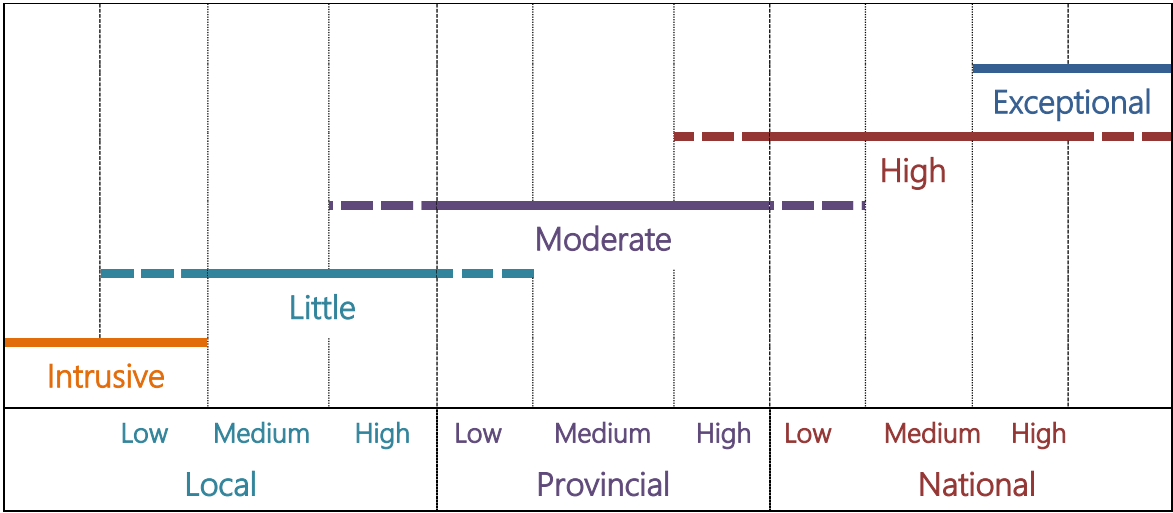


Figure 104: The extent of significance for 5 class grading system.

	Regional tier	Interpretation and presentation	Public relationship
Exceptional	National or International	Outstanding historic and archaeological significance	Nationally or internationally associated
High	National or Provincial	Rare and high historic and archaeological significance	Strongly associated with the South Korean
Moderate	Provincial or Local or National	Highly significant for the regional history and culture	Strongly associated with the provincial residents Be able to be associated with a portion of South Koreans
Little	Local or Provincial	Significant for a part of regional history and culture	Strongly associated with the local residents Be able to be associated with a portion of provincial residents
Intrusive	Local or less	Unidentified significance	Less associated with the public

Figure 105: Regional tier and 5class and general criteria.

## 6.5 Stage 4. Responding: Building up management strategy (How)

The sequence of management planning for buried archaeological sites, is a process that runs in parallel with the issue of 'How' in Chapter 4.6. This part suggests and builds up a vital approach and solution to those identified issues and challenges of a site, based on a rational assessment of the values identified in the previous part. With respect to the planning sequence, it is a '*responding*'. In other words, this stage sets up strategies and tactics to protect, promote and enhance the significance of an archaeological site. Undoubtedly, the strategies and tactics enumerated should be feasible in relation to the visions, aims and short-term goals of the management plan in a broad sense; in addition, they

should overcome any practical issues and challenges. Within the specific perspective of South Korea, the foremost issue and challenge is the development of a unified approach to site management, which does not simply reflect site-specific circumstances. In addition, in order to adopt a clear approach that is both strategic and tactical, any approach should cohere with the vision and aim of the management plan (see Chapter 4.6).

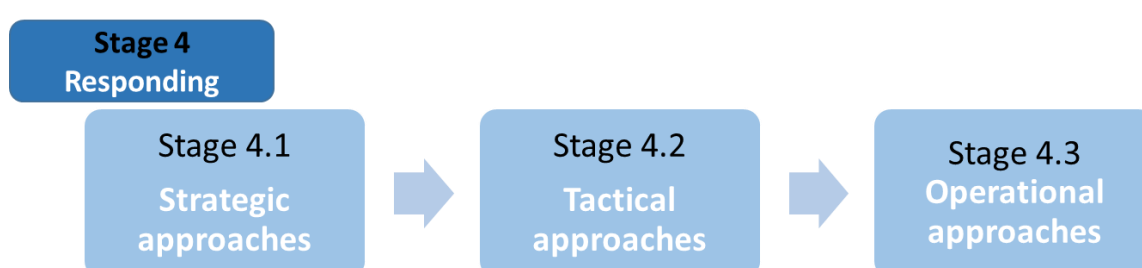


Figure 106: Responding

## 6.5.1 Principles

### 6.5.1.1 *Feasible, Workable and Site specific approach*

These principles, perhaps, are necessary for management planning as a whole, as well as for the development of a single management plan. The difference is that this 'responding' is a concern that is distinct from the previous sequence in this holistic model; for instance, Kerr (1996, 22) mentions that management strategies or policies are for the future care and development of archaeological resources. In addition, the management approach of a plan must result from the local sequence of planning. In general, the 'Identifying' and 'Assessment' stage pay attention to the past and the present concerns of an archaeological site, while 'Responding' is the process by which a management approach and strategy

looks to the site's future. This approach is developed in order to deal with those issues and challenges identified in the earlier stages of the planning process, based on the rational 'Assessment'. In other words, a feasible, workable and site specific approach develops out of the interrelationship between the previous stages. Thus, the management approach should be set up with following concerns in mind

- i) Meeting the Mission Statement*
- ii) Considering the Statement of Significance*
- iii) Making decisions based on the assessment of value*

#### **A. Meeting the Mission Statement**

The Mission Statement in a management plan is set up on the basis of those issues and challenges that are pertinent to an archaeological site. As mentioned before (see Chapter 6.3), this is not simply a list of issues and challenges at stake. It also emerges out of an understanding of the diverse values related to an archaeological site. For instance, traditionally, management planning has identified issues and challenges related to the physical dimension of an archaeological site as its first concern; the physical condition of the site is foregrounded on account of its relevance to conservation work. Recently, however, contemporary values have impacted upon the public's notion of an archaeological site; as a result, protecting, promoting and enhancing these values of the site have also become an important goal of management plans.



Undoubtedly, the issues and challenges that an archaeological site is faced with have been multiplied and complicated on account of this transformation. The Mission Statement comprises a well-organised list of all of those issues and challenges that should be dealt with by a management plan in terms of its visions, aims and short-term goals.

### **B. Decision making based on diverse values**

The latter conditions *ij)* and *iii)* emerge out of the diverse values and significance of an archaeological site. The variety and complexity of the visions of management plans necessitates strategic decision-making in order to develop an overall management approach. For a transparent rationale, values and their significance should be explored and measured. This represents the assessment stage of this holistic model. While professionals have recently drawn attention to the need for this assessment, the precise mode of its undertaking has been obscured by the dynamic nature of values, in particular, contemporary value.

#### **6.5.1.2 *Coherent with management context***

In order to arrive at a holistic management planning model, this research attempts to divide a management approach into three types; strategic, tactical and operational approaches. It is intended that this division is coherent with the management context mentioned above. This research previously explored such an approach very briefly in Figure 72 in Chapter 4.6.2.4 in terms of the vision, aim and purpose and time scales of approaches; strategic approach and tactical

approach; Long-term, Medium-term, and Short-term. However, the time scales given in this model does not fix time periods, such as long-term: 5-30 years, medium-term plans: up to 4 years and short-term: up to 1 year (Annual Work as an action plan) (Feilden and Jokilehto 1998, 2). Rather, this research intends to use those critical contexts of the holistic management planning model in order to develop a more sophisticated management approach.

### **A. Strategic approach**

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, the term 'strategic' is defined as 'relating to the identification of long-term or overall aims and interests and the means of achieving them'. In this definition, the words 'long-term or overall aims' align with the vision of a management plan for an archaeological site. Thus, a strategic approach is one that develops in order to achieve the vision as a high level overview, and constitutes most comprehensive goal of a management plan. As defined in Chapter 6.3.1, the vision leads to the aims and short-term goals of the plan, and requires a long-term time scale. In terms of its spatial scale, the strategic approach ranges from the landscape as an embracing conception, to the site's surroundings (see chapter 5.2.2). In addition, with respect to the value of an archaeological site, this approach covers all types of values, from traditional to contemporary, as targets worthy of enhancement. The meaning of 'enhance' in this context, is not simply one of interpretation, but also extends to that of the discovery of new value or raising-up of less significant values or underestimated values. Accordingly, it is related to a comprehensive question, 'how to manage a

site', and the word, 'management' in this context is an embracing notion including both protection and conservation (see Chapter 5.2.3). The meaning of 'management' also ranges from safeguarding and maintaining the values and significance of an archaeological site, to promoting and enhancing them, and the strategic approach is the management response. This overarching conception of the term, 'management' or vision is a fundamental principle of a management plan, and also becomes a principle or policy of the organisation that is responsible for managing the archaeological site going forwards. For this reason, it may - occasionally - be strategically difficult to arrive at the accomplishment that should comprise the vision, and instead long-term and continuous ongoing activity on a site may need to be the ultimate target of the management / organisation.

### **B. Tactical approach**

By contrast, the term 'tactical' is defined more narrowly in the Oxford English Dictionary as, 'related or constituting actions carefully planned to gain a specific (military) ends'. Although the definition does not address a specific time scale, it highlights 'gain a specific ends', instead. The 'specific ends' can be replaced by the aim of a management plan because the aim in management planning includes specific goals that logically relate to the vision as the largest picture for the future (see Chapter 6.3.3). In addition, the aim should be achievable in a certain time scale. Therefore, the tactical approach in this holistic model addresses the methods through which the aims of a management plan might be

achieved, as well as requiring a specific period of time. If one considers that the strategic approach needs a long-term timescale, then tactical approach requires a medium-term timescale. As with timescale, the spatial range must be smaller, in relative terms than in the case of the strategic approach. It concerns the range that is more directly related to an archaeological site and can be defined as its 'surroundings'. In the practice of planning, this approach places attention on the interpretation of the values and significance of an archaeological site. As defined in previous chapters (e.g. see Chapter 5.2.4), interpretation needs a relatively longer period in order to accomplish a result in the context of value-based planning, which is the fundamental context of this holistic model. This is because the interpretation ranges from the physical protection (conservation) of a site to the protection of diverse range of values, as well as to the promotion of these values to the public.

	Strategic Approach	Tactical Approach	Operational Approach
<b>Mission statement</b>	Vision	Aim	Purpose
<b>Time scale</b>	Long-term Plan	Medium-term Plan	Short-term Plan
<b>Spatial scale</b>	Landscape	Surrounding	Site
<b>Focused value</b>	Contemporary + Traditional	Contemporary	Traditional
<b>Goal</b>	Enhancement of value	Promotion of value	Maintenance of value
<b>Management context</b>	Management	Protection	Conservation
<b>Management conception</b>	Policy	Interpretation	Presentation

Figure 107: Management approaches and related concepts in the holistic model.

### C. Operational approach

In the Oxford English Dictionary, the term, 'operational' is defined as 'in a condition of readiness to perform some intended (originally military) function; able and ready to function'. According to this definition, it can be said that the 'operational approach' addresses the approaches to achieving the most specific goal. In this context, the operational approach works in parallel with the purpose of the holistic management planning model. In addition, and as mentioned in the definition, it requires a short-term timescale. The purpose behind a management plan is the immediate or urgent issues and challenges that relate to the archaeological site, such as the damage to it, or conservation work taking place on the site. In terms of spatial scale the operational approach places its emphasis on the current condition of a site; in terms of type of value, it is most closely related to traditional value. This operational approach, in summary is related to the protection and presentation of an archaeological site.

#### 6.5.1.3 *Setting up based on values*

In order to be feasible and workable as a planning management approach, it must be based on the diverse values of an archaeological site as well as on matters of transparency. As previously noted, management approaches, whether they be strategic, tactical or operational, inevitably impact on the condition of an archaeological site, as well as on the people who are associated with the site. Accordingly, the decisions of a management approach must, first and foremost, put in place appropriate protection measures that all stakeholders clearly understand; in other words, they must be 'feasible or workable' and 'transparent'.

The diverse values of an archaeological site should be considered in the decision-making process, with attempts at categorizing and assessing values described as a tool for decision-making in the previous chapter (see Chapter 6.4). In fact, the management approach defined above emphasizes the importance of operational approaches being feasible and workable, because they impact on the physical condition of a site immediately and most directly. Accordingly, as conservation professionals have long highlighted, professionals must therefore ensure that their approach is predicated upon the physical condition and traditional value of the site. The tactical and strategic approach for the aims and vision of a management plan, moreover, demands greater transparency as well as feasibility and workability. This is because of the relevance of these approaches to the general public. In terms of values, the approaches place more focus on contemporary value compared with the purposes of a plan, and in so doing the number of people who are concerned with the approach in question increases, making it all the more important that decision making is transparent.

All values must, undoubtedly, be assessed in the process of setting up management approaches. As mentioned above, approaches contain different facets; for instance, in terms of value, time and spatial scale (see Figure 107), necessitating a values-based assessment system (see Figure 102 and Figure 103). The strategic approach sets-up the large-scale and long-term goal of a site, which includes traditional values and contemporary values, while the operational

approach encompasses immediate and specific needs, for which physical condition and traditional value are relevant. Thus, the values to be assessed are necessarily weighted depending on the issues and challenges to be foregrounded in line with each approach. Consequently, such a value assessment system should be used as an intellectual road map for setting up management approaches because the system is not a simple formula of source- input/ result- output. It is, rather, a tool to support the decision-making process. Thus, a narrative statement should always support management approaches based on an assessment of values.

#### 6.5.2 Setting up a management approach for South Korean

Having outlined the theoretical principles for setting up a management plan, this part shifts the focus onto a practical approach for buried archaeological sites in the South Korean context described. As described in Chapter 4.6.2, this research addresses some of the practical issues and challenges related to buried archaeological sites in South Korea. In terms of the above management approach principles, they can be summarised as follows:

- i) Strategic approach - *legal protection – designation*
- ii) Tactical approach - *compatible use – interpretation*
- iii) Operational approach – *presentation - decisions relevant to excavation*

#### 6.5.2.1 *Strategic approach - legal designation*

##### **A. Boundaries of archaeological sites**

In the modern worldwide context of Archaeological Resource Management, legal designation is widely accepted as a basic and essential way to protect archaeological resources. For instance, Japanese legislation employed 'the designation system deriving from a value system emphasizing excellence in technical execution or importance to Japanese cultural identity' (Barnes 1990, 185) such that a resource which is recognized as 'high historical, artistic and/or scientific value comes under the aegis of the Law' (Barnes 1990, 185). As previously noted, many countries' assessment or grading systems were originally developed for national designation purposes (e.g. Darvill 1987, Kerr 1990, New South Wales Heritage Council 2009). In South Korea, the designation system was initiated with the enactment of *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962* and has played a powerful role in managing archaeological sites. In this system, archaeological resources are categorized by site type, before being, differentially designated on the basis of the site's National, Provincial or Local importance; the management of designated sites depends upon where they fall within these regional tiers. For instance, a site's buffer zone is defined by the status of its designation; for example, a national site has a 500 metre radius, a provincial site 300m and local site 100m (Article 13 of *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1962*). As such, all activities in the surrounding area are restricted by the legal system.



From a management planning viewpoint, this designation is a useful way of defining the boundary of an archaeological site, as described in Chapter 5.2.2 using the terms 'site', 'surroundings' and 'landscape'. By means of the designation system, the boundary and buffer zone of a site is clearly defined. To match these requirements, the 'site' in this research is the 'designated area' that is legally recognised, and the 'surroundings' are parallel with the buffer zone. A third zone constitutes the 'landscape' of this research. To sum up, a legal designation system is a basic way of defining the relevant boundaries of an archaeological site; see for instance, Figure 108 is a map of *Jeongokri*, produced by the Geographic Information System run by the CHA (Cultural Heritage GIS Service). According to Figure, the boundary of 'site' was defined by the 1979 designation, and the buffer zone (500m radius) was been maintained until 2001. After the 11<sup>th</sup> excavation in 2000 to 2001, the surrounding area was re-defined with zones highlighted on the basis of their relationship with *Jeongokri*, and the contemporary activities of each, such as building construction, height of buildings, and so on, clearly circumscribed (Figure 109).

This process has enabled the boundaries of *Jeongokri* to be defined more precisely - the designated area in 1979 (yellow part in Figure 108) as 'site'; area 1-5 (brown, violet, blue, dark brown and green parts), buffer zone, as 'surroundings', and the outside area as 'landscape'. Such acts of re-designation have been conducted at a number of South Korean sites and move beyond the application of a uniform buffer zone that fails to allow for site-specific

circumstances; they have been influenced by the increasing interest of South Koreans in archaeological sites.

In terms of the fundamental aspects of management planning few sophisticated assessment criteria are applied to the overall designation system in South Korea, with little allowance for understanding the diverse values of archaeological sites.

In particular, buried sites are heavily reliant upon traditional values such as academic and research value and historic value, which are developed by the professionals (see Chapter 4.5). In terms of the management planning process, there are few tools with which to create a grounded and long-term vision for the future of an archaeological site.

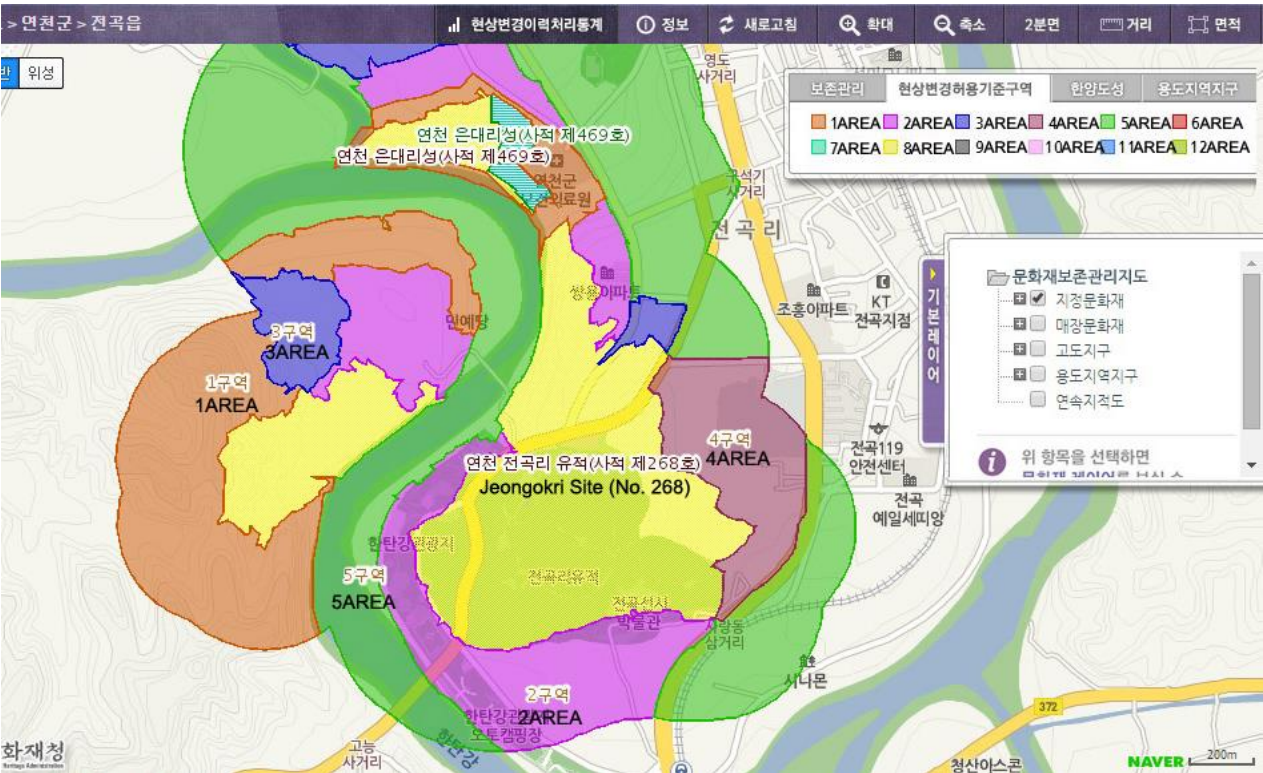


Figure 108: Buffer zone of *Jeongokri* (from Cultural Heritage GIS Service by CHA <http://gis-heritage.go.kr/re>).

	Acceptable standard
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	Flat roof building	Slope roof building (slope more than 3:10)
1 AREA	No new building Building repairing in existing scale	
2 AREA	New building Maximum height building: 5m (1 floor) Building repairing in existing scale	New building Maximum height building: 7.5m (1 floor) Building repairing in existing scale
3 AREA	New building Maximum height building: 8m (2 floor) Building repairing in existing scale	New building Maximum height building: 12m (2 floor) Building repairing in existing scale
4 AREA	New building Maximum height building: 11m (3 floor) Building repairing in existing scale	New building Maximum height building: 15m (3 floor) Building repairing in existing scale
5 AREA	New building Maximum height building: 14m (4 floor)	New building Maximum height building: 18m (4 floor)
6 AREA	New building Maximum height building: 17m (5 floor)	New building Maximum height building: 21m (5 floor)
7 AREA	Decided by the local government plan	
8 AREA	When new building, archaeological investigation should be carried out When an archaeological remain is discovered, it is decided by the CHA	
Common Standards	When any construction is built on where possibly archaeological remains are buried, relevant experts should be involved. The works related to the Hantan-river tourism development programme and <i>Jeongokri</i> development plan are exceptions.	

Figure 109: Acceptable standards depending on areas in *Jeongokri* (from Cultural Heritage GIS Service by CHA <http://gis-heritage.go.kr/re>).

## B. Assessment values for designation

Since a designation system was initiated in South Korea with the *Cultural Heritage Protection Law 1962*, the regional tier has come to be regarded as a significant ranking, while a nationally designated site represents the most important level (and less importance is accorded provincial or local sites). Based on the conception of the extent of significance, the five-class grading system in Chapter 6.4.7 (see Figure 103) may be used to grade an archaeological site. Legally, sites can be designated or categorised as National, Provincial, and Local depending on their significance. However, as previously noted, South Korean's interest on World Heritage has grown through the start of the 21<sup>st</sup> century; as a result, eleven sites have now been designation as 'World Heritage' - a figure the

administration is making attempts to increase. However, within the South Korean legal system, few criteria offer any potential for distinguishing World Heritage; in order to reflect this shortcoming, the highest level in the 5 grade system developed by this research (see Chapter 6.4.7) is defined as the World Heritage level; then, the current 3 categories are followed: National, Provincial and Local; lastly non-designated levels are set apart for more sophisticated assessment.

Grade	Designation	Traditional value	Contemporary value	Authenticity
Exceptional	World Heritage	Rare and outstanding significance for Korean history and culture and a part of the human history	Strong association with Korea and closely related to other people in neighbouring countries	Rare and outstanding original landscape, surrounding and site
High	National	Demonstrating nationally significant historic event or feature	Significant and meaningful for the national identity	High degree of authentic integrity of landscape, surroundings and site
Moderate	Provincial	Demonstrating provincially significant historic event or feature and typical nature of the province	Significant and meaningful for the provincial identity	Partly damaged or altered, modified landscape and surrounding/highly authentic site. Understanding of original atmosphere
Little	Local	Demonstrating locally significant historic event or feature and typical nature of the local region.	Significant and meaningful for the provincial identity	Damage, altered or modified landscape, surrounding and site Guess work is necessary to understand original atmosphere
Intrusive	No designated	Demonstrating historic event or feature related to limited individuals or a small group of people	Significant and meaningful for a limited group of people	Significantly damaged or altered, modified

Figure 110: Grads and designation based on traditional value.

Though international systems of designation have been developed, they commonly over-emphasise traditional values; while the South Korean grade category has developed along similar lines. The modern conception of

Archaeological Resource Management, necessitates a foregrounding of contemporary value, in assessments of the significance of a site. Indeed, long-term strategic visions of archaeological sites, should also make contemporary value an important matter of concern. Thus, this research attempts to take advantage of both types of value; however, this does not mean that all values of an archaeological site will be considered to define a site's grade.

In fact, the assessment criteria for a designation system have been suggested already in Chapter 6.4.7. In terms of traditional value, an important standard is the significance of a past event in relation to an archaeological site in comparative perspective, whether this be temporal or regional, rarity or uniqueness, and so on. Furthermore, the criteria address contemporary value, while this research attempts to add authenticity to the criteria applied. The authenticity in this context does not simply mean physical integrity within a site and its artefacts. It also covers the conception of landscape, surroundings and the site at large. The site may be embedded within authentic surroundings, and the surroundings might extend into its landscape. Accordingly, the conception of authenticity involves the authentic atmosphere of an archaeological site. Where a site maintains an authentic landscape, surroundings and site, a management plan should address the protection of the landscape as a mode of interpretation presentation, and even if damaged, the plan should include approaches to protect, use and recover them. In other words, authenticity is a critical consideration within any strategic approach in planning, and should be regarded as such alongside traditional and contemporary value.

#### a. Exceptional – World Heritage

As the highest level in this five grade system, 'Exceptional' means that a site is of outstanding significance in relation to Korean history, as well as for world history and culture, or at least provides important evidence on the history and culture of neighbouring areas in Asia. An exceptional site may be capable of representing an outstanding historic event. This historic event must have contributed to the formation of Asian, as well as South Korean history and culture, set within the context of a part of world history. Consequently, sites in this grade are important for Korean people as well as for people in neighbouring countries. For the sake of interpretation and presentation, such sites should maintain a highly authentic landscape and immediate surroundings, as well as the site itself. Although the authenticity includes function of the site, as well as physical integrity, in the case of buried archaeological sites, 'the buried' can already mean 'destroyed or abandoned'. Therefore, it places significant weight on the physical integrity of a site.

#### b. High – National Site

The 'High' level runs in parallel with the 'nationally designated level'. As with the term, 'nationally', this means that an archaeological site represents a nationally significant event, which contributed to the formation of Korean identity.

Consequently South Korean people may be interested in the site as part of the

symbolic meaning of Korean history and culture. Notably the 'Exceptional' criteria, above, are included as a standard of the 'High' grade in the current South Korean legal framework. Among the 'High' grade sites, an outstanding site can be selected as 'Exceptional', as representative of the neighbouring countries' culture and history or because it has highly authentic integrity. From this perspective, buried archaeological sites tend to be underestimated due to their invisibility and fragility. For instance, no buried sites in South Korea have been nominated onto the tentative list of World Heritage status, let alone designated as such. Considering the characteristics of buried sites and interrelated sites, in particular prehistoric sites, which do not overlap with current national borders or ethnic divisions, should be regarded as having more potential for designation as World Heritage, not less. To sum up, to assess a site as 'High', the assessment should take account of the 'Exceptional' level. For instance, the *Jeongokri* site is an outstanding Palaeolithic site in South Korea, which can provide important evidence of early human beings in the Korean peninsula. At the same time, *Jeongokri* is critical for research into East Asian Palaeolithic culture in general, as well as for Palaeolithic culture within South Korea. In addition, the site is well-preserved, as are its surroundings and landscape. Considering the significance of *Jeongokri*, its 1962 designation as a National Site was entirely reasonable, indeed it is potentially worthy of inclusion on the list of World Heritage.

c. Moderate – Provincial Site

The 'Moderate' grade entails less significance in terms of scale of region, first of all. The meaning of an historic event pertaining to a site is relevant to the smaller regional scale, 'provincial', rather than national. Consequently, any event taking place at a site is relates identity of people in a province. In terms of physical integrity, the site may have been more damaged, modified or altered from its original state compared to the 'High' level. However, these comparison factors for traditional value, contemporary value and authenticity should be examined in terms of their mutual relationship. Even if a historic event on the site was very significant such as 'High-National', it may only be assessed as 'Moderate-Provincial' where the event does not draw the present provincial residents' attention, or the site has not been maintained in its original condition, including its surroundings or landscape. On the other hand, if an event at a historically meaningful site was important only at a local level, and its original form was damaged, but the site is very rare or unique, it can be classed as 'Moderate-Provincial' provided these qualities of rarity and uniqueness are accepted provincially. For instance, it is widely accepted by Korean archaeologists that different regional cultural units existed in the Korean peninsula during the prehistoric period; for instance, *Sosadong* is a site that is heavily representative of Bronze Age culture in the mid-western part of Korea, which differs from that of the south, north, and east parts of Korea. In addition, the site shows the interrelationship between the south part and the mid-west part of Bronze Age culture in Korea. This culturally distinguished area of the *Sosadong* site has the



capacity for classification as concomitant with the present 'Kyeonggi' province. Accordingly, it is fair that *Sosadong* can be placed in the 'Moderate' grade in terms of the historic meaning of the site. Given the result of excavation, however, the site is strongly representative of Bronze Age settlement, which is rare and unique in South Korea. Considering these values as they relate to *Sosadong*, it is also fair to place the site in the higher 'High-Nationally' grade. Finally, one must give heed to the destruction of the site, in order to build contemporary residential buildings; accordingly, a fair evaluation is 'Little or Intrusive,' as follows.

d. Little – Local Site

In general, a site in the 'Little-Local Site' grade has limited historic meaning and is in imperfect condition so far as archaeological sites in general are concerned. If a site nevertheless contributes to local history or culture and local residents are interested in the site, it may be graded accordingly. Unless, a site has a more significant meaning, if it is not well preserved it should be graded as 'little-local site'. Recently increases in interest in history and culture in South Korea entails that more potential sites are likely to be included in this categorisation, on account of groups' interest in sites that are of interest to local or familial history. In other words, increasing numbers of sites are drawing the attention of specific interest groups. Although the scale of significance of a site in the 'Little' grade is smaller than the above grade, the numbers of sites falling within this grade will

play an important role in the public's notion of archaeological sites more generally.

e. Intrusive – No designation

Archaeological sites in this 'Intrusive' category are of significance or values that are either not yet identified, of zero value or insignificant in their current condition. In fact, a number of buried archaeological sites in South Korea have been placed in this grade due to the unclear or undiscovered value of the sites. As is repeatedly the case, buried sites essentially demand archaeological excavation to identify real values. All unexcavated sites potentially fall within this grade. In order to deal with this issue, the CHA created a 'cultural remains distribution map project' between 1996 and 2010, which aims to list all cultural heritage in South Korea. As a result, 87,859 sites were recorded (Lee Jin-Young *et al*/2011). Most sites recorded by this project have remained without further evaluation, with the exception of sites that had previously been designated; consequently, these sites are categorized as 'intrusive' for the time being, but further evaluation, such as archaeological excavations, gives them potential for re-categorisation. To sum up, this 'Little- No designated' grade means sites of less significance; it also includes sites where a decision has been deferred because the real value is not yet understood.

#### 6.5.2.2 *Tactical approach – Interpretation & Presentation*

As defined in a previous part, a tactical approach is a comparatively more practical way to deal with the aims of a management plan. Obviously, this tactical approach can cover a number of issues and challenges, from physical protection and display of an archaeological site, to interpretation of the significance and promotion of the diverse values of a site. In order to deal with such issues and challenges, it can be said a comparatively longer time frame is demanded.

Considering South Korean circumstances, seen in Chapter 4.6.2, the compatibility of the use of an archaeological site in balance with its protection, is a pertinent issue. More practically, this exists in parallel with matters of interpretation, because the definition of 'interpretation' in Chapter 5.2.4 connotes all of the issues and challenges that are related to the tactical approach. In addition, such a tactical approach for the aims of a management plan, and the issues and challenges of interpretation, shape decision-making in conservation work (see Chapter 5.2.4). This means that the interpretation of significance and values of an archaeological site often requires conservation work, to promote the site's values as well as to safeguard it. Given the nature of buried archaeological sites, namely fragility, the conservation work is essentially needed for their protection. In addition, such conservation work is an important dimension of the public's use of an archaeological site. Thus, it should take account of a range of factors. In spite of the importance of conservation work, seen in Chapter 4.6.2, a defined approach to managing sites in South Korea is currently lacking.

### A. On-site museum and significance

The first matter of concern as regards setting up a tactical approach to meet aims of a management plan is the necessity of an interpretation facility. As mentioned in Chapter 4.6.2, the construction of an on-site museum, which includes conservation work on-site, comprises the most popular method of interpretation within South Korean management plans in South Korea. Although museums represent a valuable interpretation strategy, particularly when one considers the 'invisibility and fragility' of buried archaeological sites, the scale and nature of a museum should be decided as part of the overall vision for management planning. In order to do so this research developed a method for the assessment of values of buried sites in Chapter 6.4, and the five grades of significance previously described (see Figure 105). This assessment can also be used to set up a tactical approach in terms of the scale and characteristics of an onsite museum. For instance, the five grades from 'Exceptional' to 'Intrusive' are closely related to both the significance of a site, and the public relationship with the site. 'Exceptional' or 'High' grade sites have nationally accepted significance, are the interest of all Koreans, and are of potentially international interest. This means that, for such grades of site, a museum should interpret the site's significance within the context of a national or international perspective. Not surprisingly, the scale of the museum should fit the interpretation. Likewise, the other grades represent the significance of their public relationship in their

regional extent, which could also be addressed in the scale and characteristics of an onsite museum.

In line with the significance of buried archaeological sites, the vision of a management plan should be taken into account in relation to the tactics employed in its approach. As previously noted, management approaches should be set-up logically, with coherence between the strategic, tactical and operational approaches used. In many cases, management plans have an ambitious vision for a site; for instance, World Heritage has fallen within the recent purview of a number of South Korean professionals, as well as that of local and regional governments. *Jeongokri* is a good example of a National Site that has the potential to be designated as World Heritage. The site was designated as National Site 268 with nationally accepted significance – ‘High’ grade in this research - such that the site is regarded as significant and important to research relating not only to Korea’s ancestors, but also early human beings in East Asia more generally, and to the relationship between the east and west part of the world in the Palaeolithic period, on account of the discovery the first Acheulian stone tool industry in East Asia at the site (see Chapter 3.1 and Figure 112).

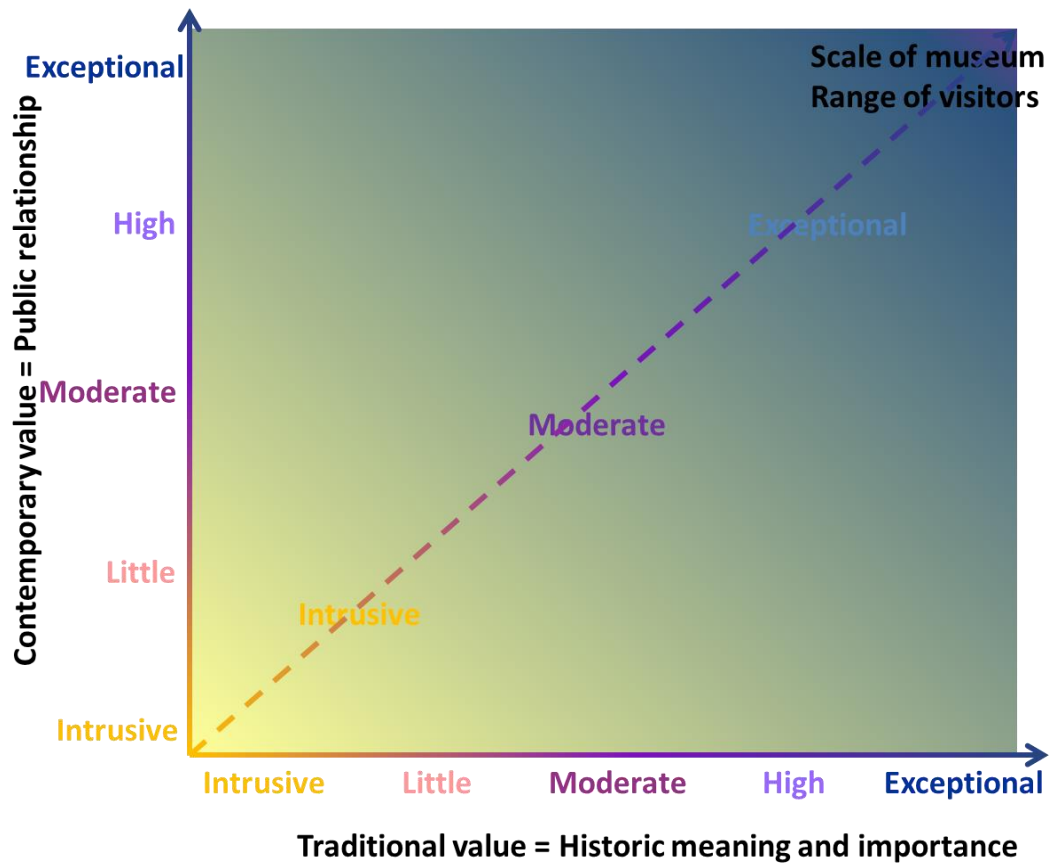


Figure 111: Significance and scale of an on-site museum and range of visitors.

In addition, the site has a well-preserved landscape including the site's immediate surroundings; as such, in the designation of this research, it falls within 'Exceptional – World Heritage'. In accordance with this significance, though the significance was not systemically assessed in the management plan of 2003, the present museum was planned and designed 'to play an important role, to develop a network with museums around the world as a site museum which represents the significance of World Heritage' (Mission Statement of the *Jeongokri* Prehistoric Museum from *Jeongokri* Museum webpage).

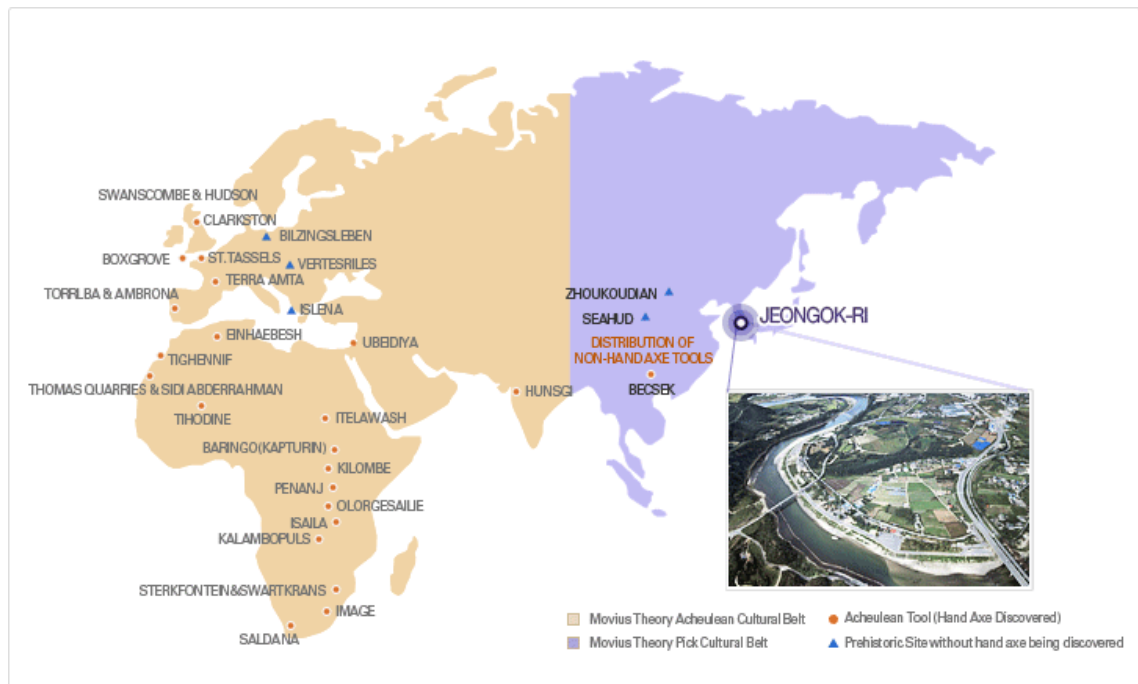


Figure 112: Map of Movius theory and location of *Jeongok-ri*.

## B. Conservation work

When building a museum at a buried site, another critical side of the interpretation approach, as a key tactical approach, is the display of the site itself, which tends to involve conservation work, such as the repair, restoration and reconstruction of the site, or aspects of the site. Given the nature of buried archaeological sites, namely their invisibility and fragility, this is essential and important work; however, decision making in relation to conservation is very difficult. In fact, a number of conservation works have been conducted, e.g. *Namdaemoon* or S55E20 pit in *Jeongok-ri*, all of which encompass a number of issues and challenges (see Chapter 4.5.2), in part because of the absence of a concrete decision-making tool. The first question 'is a site worthy of display?' This question implies a variety of aspects; 'is the site valuable historically?'; 'is the site able to represent a unique or special historic meaning?'; 'is this type of site

too rare to be displayed?’ and so on. In addition to these questions related to traditional value, questions about contemporary value require consideration; ‘is the significance of a site important for present people?’; ‘are people interested in a site and do they visit?’, for example. Furthermore, the physical condition of a site is a highly important aspect of decision-making; ‘is the site’s condition able to afford exposure?’ More importantly, the answer to these questions cannot be rendered in simple binary terms as ‘yes’ or ‘no’; or even ‘possible’ or ‘impossible’. If the answer is ‘yes’ or ‘possible’, it follows that it should be decided which part of the site should be displayed for the interpretation of its significance. If the answer is negative, the question is ‘what is an alternative mode of interpretation?’ which gives rise to complicated concerns such as ‘what types of conservation work should be carried out on a site?’

What is clear is that all these decisions should be made on the basis of an understanding the values and condition of any given site. This research attempted to define types of authentic conservation work in Chapter 5.2.6 as an initial step in decision making. Based on this starting point, it is important to decide whether a buried archaeological site is significant enough to be deserving of displaying for interpretation. Traditional and contemporary value should be considered in the decision-making process, which may take advantage of the grading system developed through an assessment of values (see Chapter 6.4.7 and Figure 104 and Figure 105). It can be said that the highest grade within the five is of the greatest significance; consequently, such sites are deserving of



excavation, conservation and display. In Figure 105, interpretation, represents traditional value, and the public relationship with contemporary value. The former focuses on the historic meaning and importance of the site, and the latter addresses the association between a site and the contemporary public; with the grades attributed in accordance with the extent and degree of both aspects. Therefore, it can be said that the grades indicate the overall significance of an archaeological site. At a glance, a site that falls within a higher grade is more deserving of display (see Figure 113); however, in reality the decision requires more in-depth consideration. For instance, contemporary and traditional values do not always match; the popular consensus has generally been that, for buried archaeological sites in South Korea, traditional value is more fully realised than contemporary value. The case study site at the heart of this research, *Jeongokri*, has been the source of negative public attention in the locality; an obstacle to local economic development, *Sosadong* has a similarly negative image among those prospective residents that will occupy the area once the rescue excavations and development is complete. In both cases it is difficult to reach public agreement in relation to conservation work leading to interpretation. Nevertheless, the significant historic meaning and importance of these sites to Korean history and culture demands their interpretative display. Striking a balance between both values may, therefore, need to be incorporated as a vision or aim of management. Thus, conservation work is an essential tactical approach to the management of buried sites. By contrast, in some cases, the historic

meaning or importance of a site may be less significant than the public relationship with the site; having a 'little' or 'moderate' grade of traditional value, but a high degree of interest among the local public. This, too, might justify the need for conservation work as interpretation. In this case, however, it is necessary to evaluate why people are interested in the site. This is because a site's current meaning drives social value, rather than what it used to mean; hence, a site can be used for present purposes that differ from its historic meaning or importance. In this case, the conservation work for interpretation should consider people's thinking with regard to an archaeological site.

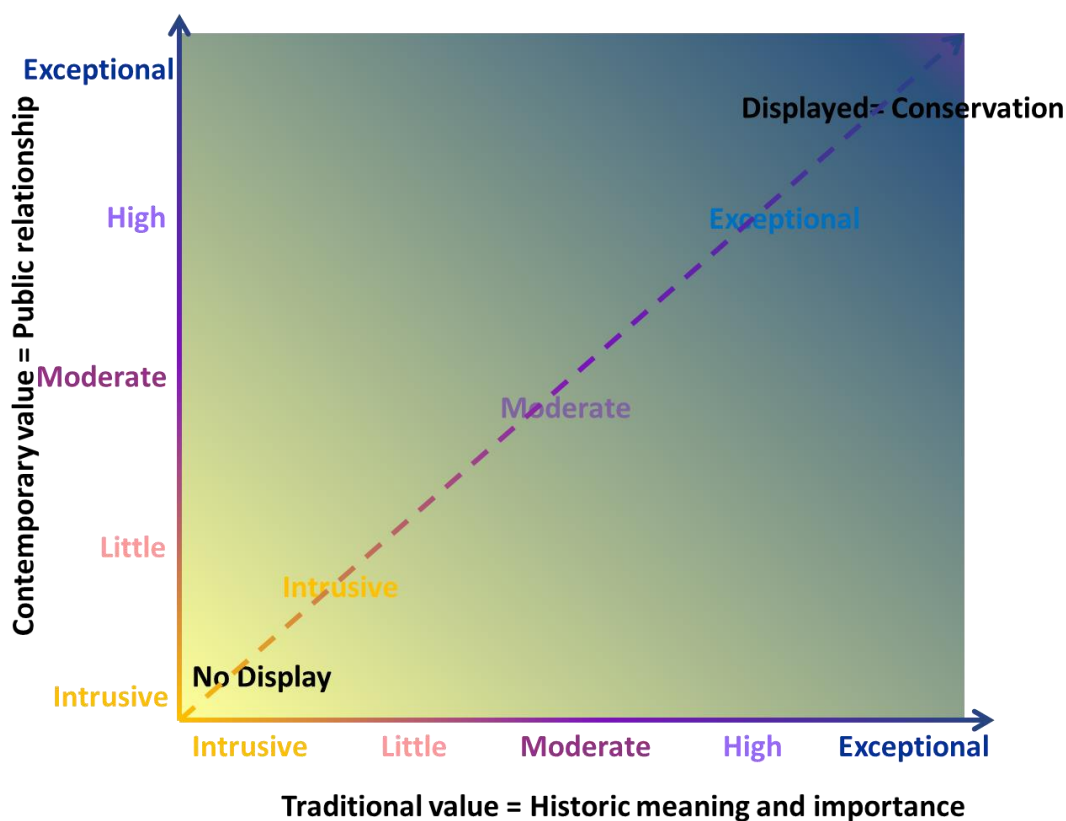


Figure 113: Display (conservation work) and significance.

Once a comprehensive decision is made, steps relating to the type of conservation are more difficult to agree upon. As defined in Chapter 5.2.6, this research attempted to classify conservation work by authenticity. In fact, maintenance and repair are commonly required for all types of conservation, as part of the management process and post-implementation. Consequently, it should be decided whether conservation work should fall within restoration, rebuilding or reconstruction; in doing so documented information should be carefully explored, including the historic meaning and physical condition of the buried archaeological site. In a broad sense, the extent of the information about a site and its present condition is critical for decision-making. Firstly, the information gathered in the 'Documentation' is analysed in a clear way in order to ascertain the part of the site that is most representative of its traditional value. It is often the case that a buried archaeological site has multiple layers of archaeological deposits, dating to different periods. For instance, *Jeongokri* has two different archaeological remains; the Palaeolithic deposit and Fortress in Samhan Period to Three Kingdom Period (A.D 300-A.D 676, see Figure 93); *Sosadong* also has archaeological remains dating from the Bronze Age to Joseon Dynasty. Obviously, the remains which represent the site's own key characteristics should be selected. In addition, it is better to nominate several of the best parts of the site for conservation work, because the selection process is likely to include a number of further stages.

Most importantly, after following the step of selecting a part of an archaeological site for conservation work, the types of conservation work necessary require further consideration. As previously noted, there are few agreed definitions of conservation work. Considering the present issues and conflicts, such as *Namdaemoon* and the S50E55 pit in *Jeongokri* and matters of authenticity, some attempt at definition is necessary. Thus, this research attempted to define conservation work in accordance with the ideal of authenticity in a broad sense. In order for decision-making to have a sounder footing, such authenticity is necessarily explored by taking a practical view in management planning. The definition in Chapter 5.2.6 shows that important conservation work should be divided into three categories: 'Restoration, Rebuilding and Reconstruction', within which choices should relate to a careful consideration of the site's value.

a. Physical integrity at present

The physical integrity of a site at present, which addresses a typical traditional value, should be considered first. The site's integrity concerns the extent to which an archaeological site is preserved under the ground in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Most buried archaeological sites tend have been damaged; this damage may result from a variety of factors; such as an historic event or national condition; with the nature of the damage often predicated on the cause.

Accordingly, it is important to identify the extent of the preserved part and of the degree of preservation at the site as a whole. Where specific parts of a site are regarded as representative, selection of which part should receive conservation

treatment should be made on the basis of their relative physical integrity: the degree and extent of any damage (Figure 114). According to the definition in Chapter 5.2.6, although all three types of conservation use may employ new materials, the choices made in this process are made in accordance with the preserved original part of the structure; restoration work, for example, is conducted where the site's form and design is, for the most part, original; rebuilding and reconstruction, meanwhile, are necessary as the missing or damaged part of a site increases in proportion to the surviving part.

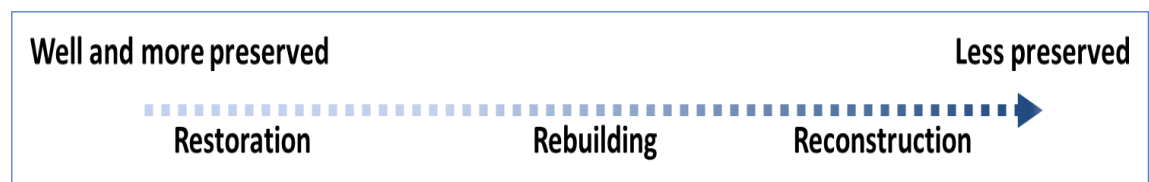


Figure 114: Selection of conservation work by physical integrity.

#### b. Information

An understanding of the missing and damaged part of the site is gained from information about the site in question, while judgements of physical integrity entail an assessment of a preserved part of an archaeological site. In order to carry out conservation work with a view to authenticity, the information about a damaged part of a site should include original design, materials, technique and so on. Even where a site has been well preserved in terms of its physical integrity, if the information about the damaged part is insufficient for restoration, any conservation work that is conducted should be understood under the rubric of rebuilding or reconstruction. Such information is gathered, first and foremost,

from the site itself, most commonly through archaeological excavation. Since buried archaeological sites are largely invisible, excavations represent an essential step in gathering relevant information. The year-on-year increases in the excavation of sites for conservation since 2000 (Figure 3) offers a rich source of information, gathered in the course of conservation work at other relevant sites that can be used to supplement information from a site itself. In fact, this gathering and analysis of relevant information is already conducted under the 'Documentation' and 'Assessment of values' according to this holistic model. In the 'Documentation' phase, relevant information should have been gathered, before being subject to comparative analysis in order to assess values, in particular, the 'Evidential value' in traditional value (see Chapter 6.4.3.2). To sum up, considerations of the physical integrity and other relevant information pertaining to buried archaeological sites informs decisions about what conservation work is to take place.

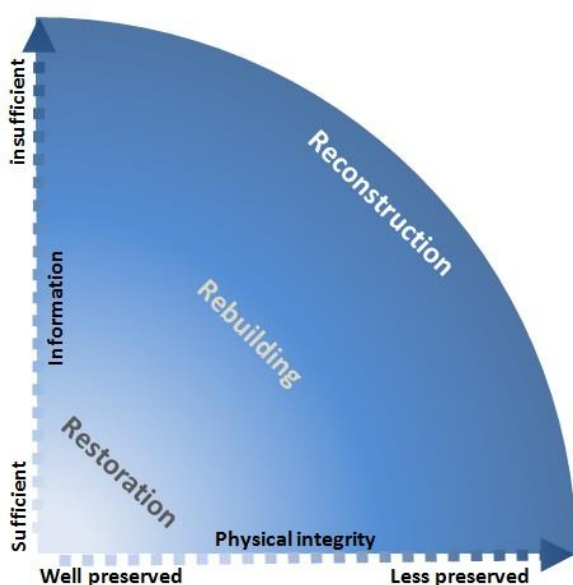


Figure 115: Selection of conservation work by physical integrity and information.

### c. Present condition

This present condition of a site can involve two different contexts: natural environment and human environment. The natural environment is a critical factor that influences the condition of an archaeological site. Many archaeological sites have been damaged or destroyed by such natural factors ranging from the weather (including rain, snow and wind), humidity, temperature, and so on. As such, natural environmental factors will also definitely impact on the condition of a site after conservation work has been conducted. In fact, most management plan reports include a chapter relating to the natural environment in the region in which the site in question is located; however, this is useless and meaningless unless the information it contains informs the set-up of the management approach. The conservation work must typically take place on an ongoing basis if the condition of a site is to be maintained; if natural factors make it unstable it cannot be opened for display, even if the physical integrity and related information is sufficient for restoration. Under such conditions - and if presentation to the public is desired - reconstruction with durable materials and techniques would seem to be the best option; a balance with the design of the site should be struck when considering additional facilities for protection are demanded, such as a shelter, roofing, and wall(s). The future of archaeological sites is also heavily dependent upon human environmental factors since, in general, all conservation works are carried out for the interpretation and presentation of an archaeological site to the general public. Consequently,

human factors are likely to always be at play in relation to the site. However, as with natural environmental factors, conservation work should take these multiple interconnected relationships as its starting point. Although the fragility of a buried archaeological site is an important consideration in deciding conservation work, one of several possible approaches may be taken, including: appropriate control of public access, and the use of new materials and techniques.

To sum up, natural and human environmental factors are highly important considerations when deciding on how conservation work is to proceed. At the same time, they are highly powerful factors; this is because the decision related to this condition of an archaeological site is likely to be more flexible with alternative methods to help overcome challenges. By contrast, the decisions concerning physical integrity and information are comparatively restricted.

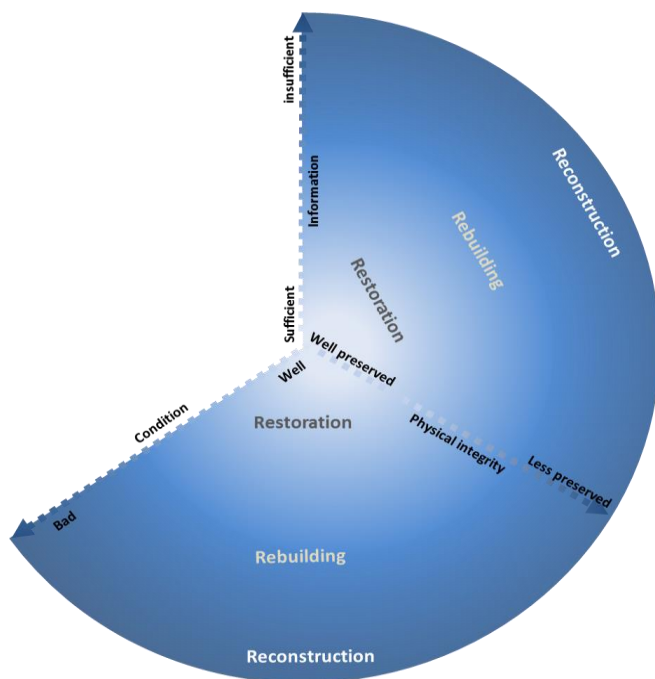


Figure 116: Selection of conservation work by physical integrity, information and condition.



#### d. Public desire

Public desire is arguably the most powerful influence over the selection of conservation work. From the stance of the modern conception of Archaeological Resource Management, public influence is a transformative power: with the potential to change decisions based on any of the three factors described above. As Chapter 2 makes clear, public awareness of archaeological resources represents a marked development in the management of archaeological sites today, and is an important power at play in the management of archaeological resources. Ideally, an archaeological site should only be restored with good physical integrity, and where there is sufficient information about its past integrity, since rebuilding and reconstruction are inauthentic processes. However, conservation work does not necessarily proceed on this basis. As a powerful voice in decision-making, public desire plays an important and powerful role. For instance, where there is a strong relationship between a site and the residents of a region, and this relationship may motivate conservation work as a social value or symbolic value in contemporary value. Such public motivations can lead to rebuilding or reconstruction of a site, even where, in reality, the fabric of a site, or the (lack of) information that has been gauged about it, does not make it a good candidate for conservation.

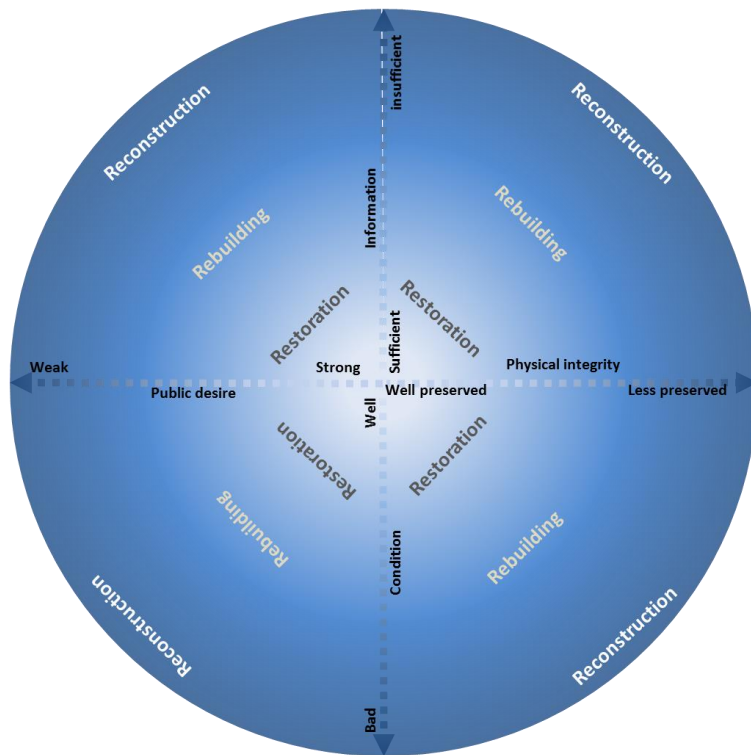


Figure 117: Selection of conservation work by physical integrity, information, condition and public desire.

At the same time, this public desire is perhaps the most difficult factor to identify. In terms of quantity, the increase of public awareness means that the number of people involved in matters related to an archaeological site increases as stakeholders increase in number; consequently, increasing numbers of people are involved in the management process, all of whom may have different views and opinions. Thus, consent for conservation work is sometimes controversial, and not always forthcoming; in addition, assessments of the result of the work can be very difficult. All of these differences can become issues and challenges in managing a site, while the reasoning underpinning conservation work may also be this public desire. It is often the case that the full range of values for buried archaeological sites are not readily understood, or underestimated, by the public.

It is simply begun with the typical invisibility of buried archaeological sites. While the display of sites is an essential approach in the presentation and interpretation of values with regards to the significance of the site. To sum up, it is clear that ascertaining the public perception of a site is a difficult process because it is very dynamic and in flux; it must, nevertheless, be carefully considered in the decision-making process with regards to conservation work, because it is the most powerful factor in managing a buried archaeological site on an ongoing basis.

#### 6.5.2.3 *Operational approach – Excavation and Post-treatment*

As defined in this chapter, an operational approach is an immediate strategy to deal with those issues and challenges that are related to the general purpose of a management plan. An archaeological site, in particular a buried archaeological site, often confronts a number of issues and challenges that are directly and immediately related to the protection and use of the site. Given the South Korean context (see Chapter 3), it is archaeological excavations and post-treatment that presents the greatest range of issues and challenges.

As Chapter 1.4 makes clear, the number of archaeological excavations has dramatically increased since the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century; most of the conflicts arising during this period seem to relate to post-excavation decision making. According to the South Korean legal framework, excavation is only permitted at buried archaeological sites for conservation or academic research purposes in

which it is in the public interest, for instance where a site is in significant danger or otherwise at risk (Article 11, *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*). Mostly excavations in the 20<sup>th</sup> century have been carried out on this basis, or - in other words – for the purposes of rescue archaeology. The primary cause of conflict is the lack of standards or criteria to assess the diverse value of excavated sites in South Korea. Not surprisingly, the greatest conflict in South Korean archaeology at the present time is related to buried sites. It is perhaps unsurprising that post-excavation treatment is the biggest source of controversy, given both their relative fragility and invisibility, and the need for rescue archaeology. Whether an excavation is designed for rescue or academic/conservation purposes, the decision for post treatment of an excavated site is difficult; in rescue archaeology, those decisions made since the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century have become a social concern. Nevertheless, a rigorous decision-making standard has neither been arrived at, nor even suggested; and although the assessment criteria was included in *Act on Protection and Inspection of Buried Cultural Heritage 2011*, this criteria is problematic (see Chapter 4.5.1.2). In order for a more sophisticated and concrete decision-making standard to be applied to the management of buried archaeological sites, this research attempted to construct a value assessment system in Chapter 6.4, while the decision-making for setting up an operational approach can also take advantage of this assessment system.

## A. Decisions for excavation

Although excavation is an essential part of archaeology, sites are also damaged by the process of excavation; as such excavation should be minimised, though it must be accepted that they are demanded by diverse reasons ranging from academic studies, to conservation work and rescue archaeology. Thus, the extent of the excavated part of a buried site is minimized, as well the number of excavations in principle. In addition, all decisions should be made on the basis of an assessment of the values of a site. For instance, a highly significant site, such as a site in Exceptional or High grade, should preclude excavation in order to protect values. By contrast, a less significant site, of 'Little or Intrusive' grade, can be excavated for gathering information that relates to a higher significance site. In this context, a site in Moderate grade may be partly excavated (see Figure 118). However, decisions related to archaeological excavation may be made in reverse with such a general principle. The decision to excavate should be coherent with the strategic and tactical approaches of the vision and aims of a site's management. For instance, an interpretation and presentation approach, including the display of a site through conservation work, often represents an important aim and purpose of a management plan. In this case, a site in Exceptional or High grade is necessarily excavated as an operational approach, in order to meet the vision and aims of its plan.

In addition, more factors may be involved in the decision-making that relates to an archaeological excavation, with these factors the subject of consideration in

the context of the operational approach. On the basis of these principles, this part of the research attempts to explore these further factors as they relate to the general process of an archaeological investigation: field survey – trench excavation – excavation.

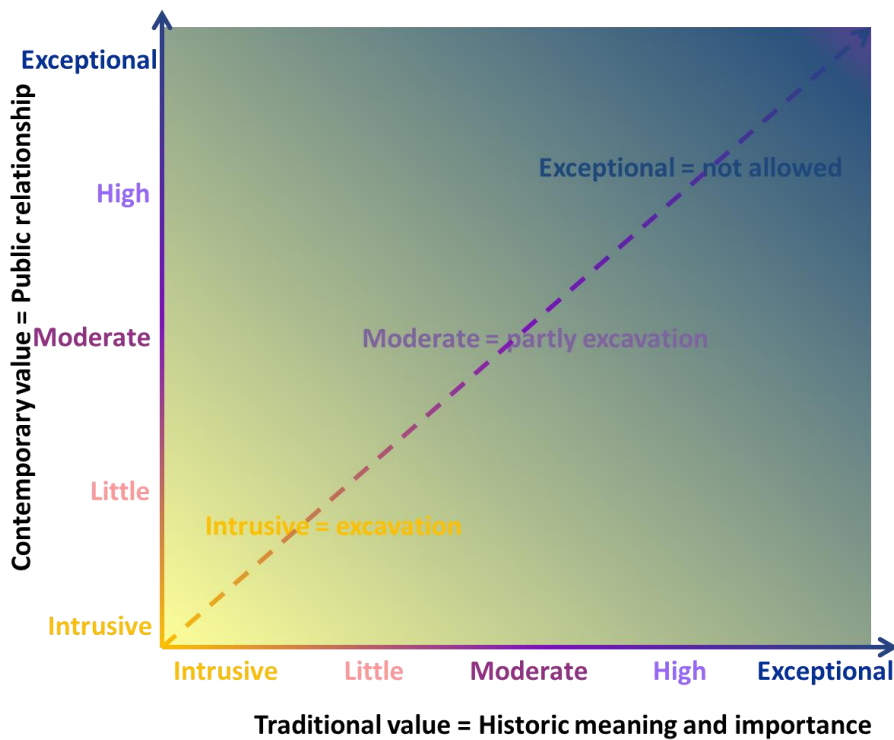


Figure 118: Significance and allowance of excavation.

#### a. Field Survey

A field survey entails archaeological investigation without digging the ground. This is, perhaps, the most important step in the definition of rigorous aims and short-term goals behind the further investigation of a site. According to the South Korean legal framework, for instance, any kind of construction work of more than 30,000 m<sup>2</sup> must be preceded by a field survey (Article 43 in *Cultural Heritage Protection Act 1966* and Article 4 in its enforcement ordinance), while a

field survey is an important initial step in archaeological investigation more generally, as well as being a mandatory stage in any construction project. Its value goes beyond its role as the immediate precursor to rescue archaeology; it is also an essential step for gathering a wide range of information in management planning, such as the documentation that is to be drawn upon. In fact, where rescue archaeology in South Korea is concerned, field survey is conducted simply in order to identify the existence of an archaeological site in an area. For management planning, field survey places its focus on obtaining information relevant to traditional value. However, there are opportunities to gather other information, such as that which relates to contemporary value. In the field survey, all relevant data should be gathered and analysed for the planning of further investigations as they relate to management planning and/or rescue archaeology. In doing so, it forms the first order of data for decision-making with respect to further investigations. Such decisions are made in accordance with the vision and aims of management planning or rescue archaeology. In cases that require further investigation, the extent and area of trench excavation should be clearly defined.

#### b. Trench survey

The trench survey is a process to discover, or sometimes confirm, the information from the field survey by excavating part of an archaeological site. It is not intended that they obtain detailed information about a target site, rather, they are undertaken as an operational approach. In other words, the aim is to

yield sufficient information for a tactical and strategic approach. For instance, in rescue archaeology, trench survey is carried out to confirm the scale and type of the buried site: essential information with which to plan an excavation; particularly in terms of the time and cost to be allotted to the rescue excavation. In management planning, the trench survey also provides feasibility information, indicating what might be achievable for the vision and aim of a plan. For this, decisions regarding further investigation may differ from the general standard in Figure 118. In order for interpretation to take place, archaeological excavations that expose a part of a buried site are essential. The part to be exposed by excavation is selected depending on existing information; if the information about a buried site is sufficient, the approach to be excavated can be selected on the basis of a tactical approach such as restoration, rebuilding or reconstruction. For the restoration of a site, the part of a site that it is thought will be best preserved is selected; the excavation of a part for rebuilding and reconstruction can be selected in the context of the physical integrity of a buried site. In other instances, the selection of an area for excavation should proceed on the basis of that which is expected to yield good information, on the basis of existing knowledge.

#### c. Excavation

Excavation is the most typical exploratory process for a buried archaeological site, as well as being the most destructive process, since buried sites are, generally, stable under the ground. Accordingly, an archaeological excavation



should yield as much information as possible, with this information subsequently used to decide on the post excavation treatment of a site and its management. Although, in principle, decision-making for post-treatment of excavation might be made based on the significance of an excavated site (e.g. Figure 118), in reality, the visions and aims of management are complicating factors. The following part attempts to suggest a standard with which to decide on the post treatment of an archaeological excavation.

### **B. The type of post treatment of excavation**

Although there are a number of possible approaches to post treatment of an archaeological excavation, these approaches can be categorised into three broad options; *in-situ*, removal and recording in general. The South Korean legal framework has suggested that the excavation team address one of the three options in the final stages of excavation. In a broad sense, these post excavation approaches can be decided on in accordance with the significance of an excavated site; as seen in Figure 119, for instance, a highly significant site is worthy of protection *in-situ*, rather less significant sites deserve recording. Although such approaches seem to constitute a rational general decision-making frame-work, there are many more considerations to take into account. Selecting a manner of preservation followed by excavation, in fact, becomes more complicated and dynamic when considering the interpretation of the significance of a site. Logically, a strategic approach leads to a tactical approach,

and in the same way, a tactical one leads to an operational one, with respect to management planning. However, a contrary process is also possible.

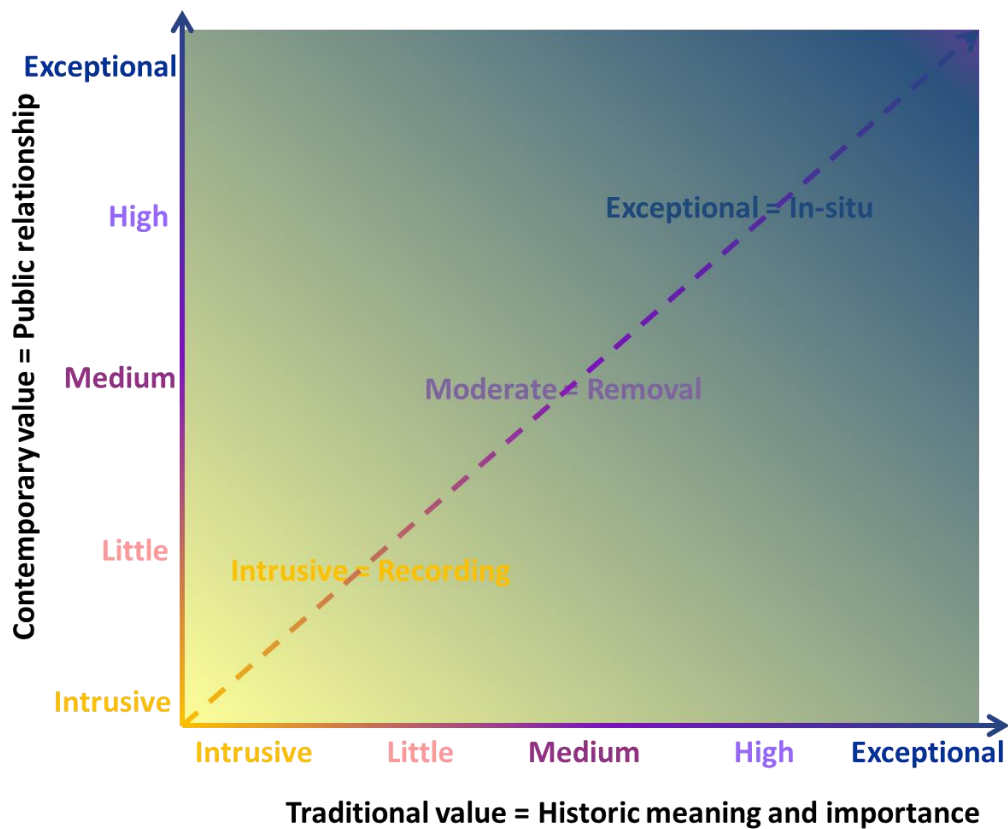


Figure 119: Significance and Post treatment of excavation.

The invisible nature of buried archaeological sites entails that their significance is not always manifest before excavation. Consequently, decisions related to post treatment of an excavation often rely upon newly discovered information related to the site's significance that is formed in the course of excavation. In such instances, the other nature of a buried archaeological site - its fragility - demands quick decision-making with regards to the selection of the manner of preservation. This operational approach can then be followed-up to build a tactical and strategic approach. It means that the selection of the post treatment

of an excavated site involves a consideration of the further use of the site (see Figure 120).

As Figure 119 shows, operational decisions regarding the treatment of an excavated site are also heavily reliant upon the values of a site, as is the case for tactical or strategic approaches in general. This post treatment approach, however, requires different perspectives to the tactical and strategic approach; the decisions related to the post treatment should make reference to the potential of an excavation to form contemporary value in the future. In fact, the decisions related to post treatment place more focus on traditional value than contemporary value, as seen in the above part of this chapter. This is because the possible values for assessing or identifying significance immediately after an excavation are traditional values. As Chapter 6.4.3.1 explores, contemporary value can be formed on the grounds of traditional value as comprehended by people in the present. Excavations often constitute the process through which traditional values are uncovered, before the formation of contemporary value subsequently. Consequently, post treatment of an excavated site as an operational approach can derive from the traditional values, which are discovered by an archaeological excavation, such as historic value and evidential value. Accordingly, the contemporary value considered in decision making for the post treatment process should take advantage of potential of a site to be made significance by the present people at a future time. Due to the nature of the post treatment of an excavation, therefore, decision-making is complicated

and dynamic. The selection of the manner of treatment can involve the consideration of a wide range of factors in terms of the interrelationship of the tactical and strategic approach (see Figure 120) with one another.

*a. In-situ*

*In-situ* preservation is most widely accepted as the best option to protect the values of a buried archaeological site after an excavation. It means that a site is protected in its original and correct place. Not surprisingly, *in-situ* protection should be selected for a highly significant site; the word, 'highly significant', can address that an excavated site was a place in which a significant historic event happened, and the site is well preserved in terms of traditional value (e.g. see Chapter 6.4.3.2). Due to this traditional value, the site will potentially draw people's attention in the future. Accordingly, the site is worthy of preservation in its original place for future use. However, other essential decisions must be taken for *in-situ* preservation. In managing a buried site, the selection of *in-situ* is not a simple approach that merely entails maintaining or keeping a site in its original place. As an operational approach, *in-situ* often means or is followed by, reburial of an excavated site. The 'highly significant' attribute of certain sites, however, means that the values of a site should be presented and interpreted to the public in terms of a tactical or strategic viewpoint. In this context, reburial is not an appropriate option because it is extremely difficult to show or display a site to present and interpret its values of a buried site. The plans for the future of the site, which can be defined by the tactical and strategic approach in management

planning, should be considered in the decision to make a site *in situ* as an operational approach.

Decisions to keep a site *in-situ* are more complicated in instances of rescue archaeology. As Figure 5 and Figure 6 show, very few rescue-excavated sites are protected by *in-situ*. If we understand 'rescue archaeology' as a strategic approach, this small number would be understandable. However, decisions in an operational approach are still problematic with regard to their coherence with the tactical approach. Even in a site protected by *in-situ*, it is fair to say that only an operational approach, '*in-situ*', is set up without a tactical and strategic approach. As a result, most sites preserved *in-situ* after excavations, for rescue purposes, have been simply reburied without the application of further interpretative or presentation strategies. To sum up, it is necessary to put in place a tactical and strategic approach for sites protected by *in-situ*, due to the significance of *in-situ* as an operational approach.

#### b. Removal

Removal means that for an excavated site, a part of the site is relocated to protect the values of the site after its archaeological excavation. In fact, removal preservation is unlikely to prove necessary for excavations conducted for academic or conservation purposes; however, for those sites excavated for rescue purposes, it is increasingly the option that is selected in South Korea. In principle, this approach is likely to be selected for a buried site in Moderate

grade; in practice it is also selected when the significance of an excavated site is not clearly agreed. For instance, even where an excavated site is assessed as Exceptional or High grade, it is often extremely difficult to select *in-situ* preservation. Removal may, necessarily be selected as an alternative option to *in-situ*, or else where the assessment of significance of a site is complicated by excavation, it can may represent the best option for future discussion.

In any cases where removal is selected as an operational approach, further matters of concern for a tactical and strategic approach follow in parallel with presentation and interpretation (e.g. Figure 59). In fact, for a site that is to be removed after excavation, one should more carefully consider presentation and interpretation, because there are a range of possible issues and challenges if a site's significance is to be retained. Most of all, the manner of presentation of a removed site is a matter of heightened concern. As is the typical nature of a buried site, a removed site is often reburied for the purpose of protection.

Although removal could be a good alternative option instead of *in-situ*, reburial provides same presentation and interpretation issues and challenges as *in-situ* reburial. Even if a removed site is opened and displayed, conservation work is usually required, because the nature of a buried site often entails it being extremely incomplete: in other words 'ruined'. Consequently a certain degree of conservation work is necessary for the site's removal; work that can, in turn, create issues of authenticity, particularly since the relocated place is not authentic. All of these represent issues and challenges to interpretation.

Accordingly, in order to select removal as an operational approach, a tactical and strategic approach should be established which considers the authenticity issue.

### c. Recording

Recording is where physical remains - with the exception of some excavated artefacts - are not retained; instead the site is 'protected' by a record. In the case of large-scale rescue excavations, the setting and landscape are also transformed after the excavation. Recording is perhaps best seen as the general principle to be selected of preservation option for sites in the 'Little or Intrusive' grade; however, in reality, in South Korea most excavated sites have been preserved by recording regardless of their grade. Recording is most often selected as the manner of protection in rescue archaeology. Although the number of recorded preservation sites after excavation is an important issue, the more critical issue is its impact on presentation and interpretation. In rescue archaeology, an archaeological excavation is carried out for the public benefit where a highway, residential building complex, or so on, is to be constructed. The contemporary value of such developments is regarded as more valuable than its traditional value as an archaeological site. In light of the limited extent of values, recording is a possible approach for an excavated site; however, interpretation and presentation of an excavated site presents a clear challenge. A site in Exceptional or High grade should be protected by recording with proper presentation and interpretation strategies, so as to retain its traditional value. As mentioned above, decisions related to post treatment of an excavated site as an operational

approach should be made in terms of the interrelationship between the tactical and the strategic approach.

Significance	Operational		Tactical	Strategic
	Post Treatment		Conservation Work	Designation
Exceptional	<i>In-situ</i>	Complete Reburial	Restoration	International
High		Partly Reburial		National
Moderate	Removal	Reburial	Rebuilding	Provincial
Little	Recording	Partly Reburial	Reconstruction	Local
Intrusive		Recording		No designation

Figure 120: Post treatment of an excavated site as an operational approach and a tactical & strategic approach based on significance.

## 6.6 Stage 5. Reviewing & Revision

In South Korea, professionals agree that review and revision often represents a missing stage in management planning (see Chapter 4.6.2.3). Once a management plan is conducted, the approaches of the plan are implemented in accordance with the time frame and scale of the approaches; reviewing means evaluating and monitoring the progress of these approaches. In so doing, a management plan can be partly changed or adjusted in line with the pace of progress; it can also involve a revision of the plan. The reason why this holistic model involves reviewing and revision as an essential part of a management plan



is that the value of a buried archaeological sites is very dynamic and in flux. As a continuing fundamental context of this holistic planning model, a buried archaeological site should be used by the public as well as protected from them. This is because the site is a valuable evidence of our past and is an important social resource to contemporary society, both in relation to its traditional and contemporary values. The former set of values can be added to and extended with academic research, including archaeological investigation or interdisciplinary research. The latter set of values of a buried site are formed by the people at present and so are all the more dynamic and in flux. All of these changes or transformations of values should be continuously updated during the management of a buried site, something that is made possible by the reviewing and revision stage of management planning; this stage involves three critical approaches - updating information, periodic reviewing, and revision of approaches.

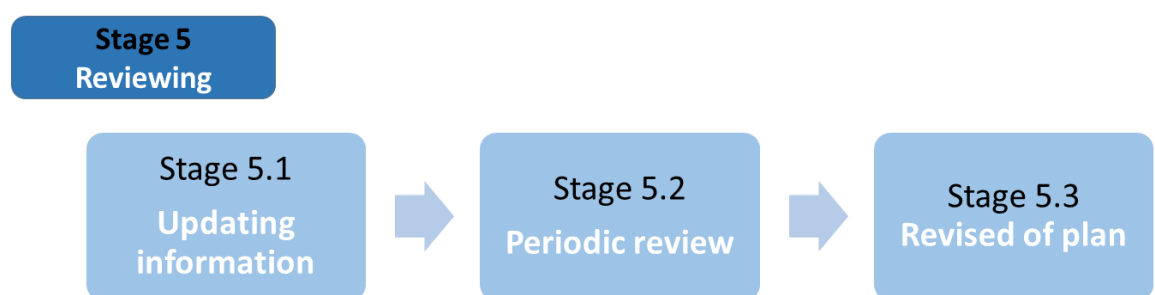


Figure 121: Reviewing

#### 6.6.1 Updating information

In terms of the traditional value of a buried archaeological site, because of the typical nature, namely their invisibility, it is fair to say that a buried site has high

academic research potential. Due to the buried status of a site, it is possible for a considerable amount of information to be invisible until excavated. Accordingly, updating information means, on the one hand, a discovery may be made or information yielded directly from a site itself, for instance, during excavation at a site. On the other hand, it means information may be obtained from other relevant sources, such as historic records, or from excavations at similar types of sites. In addition, in terms of the contemporary value of a site, the public's awareness of a site is highly important. With this purpose in mind, this holistic model addressed participatory management planning as a principle of the planning context. The public's awareness or opinions, which form contemporary value, may change and be transformed over time on account of a site's presentation and interpretation. 'Updating information', therefore, means keeping up with such changes and transformations.

In fact, the basic information pertaining to a site is already gathered and stored in the documentation stage of this holistic model (see Chapter 6.2.3). New information related to a site, however, is always in the process of production, change or transformation.

#### *6.6.1.1 Updating academic information*

Academic information should, perhaps, be the first target of revision, because of the typical nature of buried sites. As mentioned in Chapter 6.4.3.2, academic and research value, which has the potential to provide more information in future, is

an important and typical value of a buried site; invisibility conceals potential due to these site's location under the ground. For this reason, management plans often include archaeological excavations in a target site as a means of yielding essential information for management planning. Ideally, planning can be carried out with fully documented information, including excavation information, in order to understand the diverse values of a site as an important part of 'Documentation' phase (e.g. Chapter 6.2.3). In South Korea, however, the reality is that it is often difficult to conduct a plan with access to all of the relevant information. As a result, the archaeological excavation itself is not designed as a part of the Documentation phase, but is – rather – contained within the management plan. Consequently, management planning is conducted without the information provided by excavation. This is why an operation approach should be set up in order to bring about an interrelationship between the tactical and strategic approach; logically, although it is reasonable for a strategic approach to lead to a tactical and operational approach, it is possible that, in reality, the operational one might incorporate the strategic or tactical element (see Chapter 6.5.2). Whether any one approach leads to another approach, it is necessary that, for an approach to be feasible and workable, as much information as possible be gathered. For the purposes of reviewing and revising the management plan, such information is also essential. The updating of information can take advantage of a system addressed in the 'Documentation'. For instance, for the systematic storage of relevant information, this holistic

model has already suggested some possible principles and approaches in Chapter 6.2.3 and Chapter 6.2.4. These principles may be applied during this updating of information.

#### 6.6.1.2 *Condition assessment*

Perhaps, the classic example of reviewing or monitoring a site is a condition assessment. In a traditional approach, the condition survey is a process that records the present condition at the current time. It is an essential step in the drawing up of a management plan as a part of the documentation that relates to a site. In this holistic model, the condition assessment is an essential and important part of documentation and a source from which to build up the vision, aims and short-term goals underlying a management plan (see Chapter 6.2.4). In order to protect a buried site, regular or periodic condition monitoring is essential. In terms of review, these accumulated records are a very useful strategy with which to assess the impact of conservation work. In particular, a site opened or exposed for display should be carefully monitored due to the typical fragility of buried sites. This long term monitored dataset, therefore, represents a useful source for the revision of a management plan.

With the increased exposure of buried sites for interpretation and presentation, environmental factors become all the more important. It is already the case, in management planning in South Korea, that environmental information is included in the planning process, such as the temperature, precipitation and

humidity, in a region in where a buried site is located. However, this is not intended for practical use, such as the provision of data for setting up a management approach. However, buried sites are typically fragile when they are opened. Consequently, such environmental factors are highly important if an opened site is to be adequately monitored and maintained. Since the information gathered or included in management planning is not helpful or useful in this regard, updated information is necessary, which monitors site-specific environmental information, enabling practical revisions to approaches to be made. This kind of data usually is necessary if a site is to be monitored in the long term, in order to create a feasible and useful data set. In the initial steps of a management plan, however, there is often little in the way of cumulative data. Broadly speaking, the trend for establishing management plans for archaeological sites in South Korea is relatively recent; consequently relevant environmental information, which requires time to accumulate, is not yet available. In addition, in terms of conservation work for safeguarding a buried site, there is no guaranteed or fool proof way of dealing with all the issues and challenges that arise. Conservation work is necessarily selected according to the site-specific context, and the site managed with an understanding of these specific conditions. For this reason, it is necessary to update environmental information through the monitoring of a site over the long term.

### 6.6.1.3 *Visitor survey*

Having addressed necessary updates to information related to traditional value in the field of Archaeological Resource Management, which of contemporary value requires some attention. The relationship between an archaeological site and the public, which underlies contemporary value, is a comparatively new concept in South Korea. As a basic approach, visitor survey may play an important role in gauging the public's attitude towards a buried site. Visitor surveys do not just record the number of visitors and their potential impact on the physical condition of a site, but also concern how they feel and what they think, whether they are satisfied, and so on. In particular, recent management plans address the enhancement of values of a buried a site as a vision contained within the management plan, with interpretation and presentation of meaning aims of the plan and physical protection its primary purpose. As Chapter 6.3.1 shows the vision and aims of a management plan are more closely related to contemporary value. In other words, such enhancement of the values of a site can be gauged from the public with reference to contemporary value. Consequently, visitor surveys should include questions in order to measure visitors' awareness of the values of a site. Different survey methods should be employed in this process, such as questionnaires, interviews, observation, and so on.

## 6.6.2 Periodic reviewing

In the light of management planning, this process of review and revision measures the achievements of the management approaches produced by a plan. However, it is not simply a matter of achievement or failure; rather it is an attempt to gauge progress. Based on this review process, a management plan or management approaches contained within a plan, may be revised.

### 6.6.2.1 *Time scale and frame of approaches*

In order to precisely measure of the achievement of approaches in a management plan, progress should be reviewed according to a time scale and framework that is explicitly addressed in the management plan. This holistic management plan has already suggested three different categories of management approach, strategic, tactical and operational approaches. These three approaches are divided by their variable time frame and type of mission (see Chapter 6.3.1 and Chapter 6.5.2), though at the same time, they are not distinguished solely by a specific time scale, such as a year, 5 years, 10 years or 30 years. Instead, these approaches should be given a clear time frame depending on each approach. The approaches are intended to be feasible and workable. Accordingly, their periodic review means assessing the progress of all of the approaches in the time frame that the management plan addresses. This does not simply mean assessing whether an approach has been achieved or was a failure. Rather, it means measuring the degree of progress towards achievements.

For this reason, periodic review meets the requirements to review the plan on a regular basis. For instance, an operational approach is implemented immediately after planning and will generally be finished in a short-term time frame. In order to assess progress, the review process should be carried out more often than for a tactical approach. Both approaches, however, should not be regarded as separate. Tactical and operational approach are set up in interrelationship as defined in Chapter 6.5.2. The assessment of the progress of an operational approach is therefore a process by which the progress of the tactical approach is also reviewed. At the same time, the assessment of a tactical approach also reviews the strategic approach. In the conception of the mission of a management plan, this review of the progress of achievement of the plans' goals should be understood as the conception of the visions and aims of the plan. To sum up, intellectually, reviews should be carried out with an understanding of the conception of operational, tactical and strategic approaches to the aims and vision of a plan. In practice, reviews should be carried out periodically, and on a regular basis.

#### *6.6.2.2 Assessing progress to achievement*

Given the conception of review based on the three management approaches above, the process of assessment is not simply a decision about whether an approach has been achieved or otherwise, but is a matter of measuring the progress at present. In terms of time scale, for instance, an operational approach can easily assess achievement because the approach relies heavily upon the



physical condition of a buried site. In a logical sense, however, an operational approach is a pathway, which goes on to achieve the aims of the plan by a tactical approach. The latter demands more time to achieve than the former. Similarly, the achievement of a plan's vision requires the achievement of the tactical approaches over the long term. Thus, the assessment of the achievement of purpose (an operational approach) may represent a more straightforward strategy. Based on this achievement or progress of an operational approach, the progress of aims (a tactical approach) can be gauged, and the vision (a tactical approach) can be measured by the progress of the aims.

In addition, review is a process with which to estimate the degree of progress. It is a process with which to evaluate approaches on the basis of updated information. Updating information is, as previously noted, a key factor for the review of a management plan. Often, the implementation of management approaches may be bisected by new information that necessitates an update to the plan, while new issues and challenges may also emerge. For instance, archaeological excavation, as designed by a management plan, may yield new information that needs to be interpreted and presented. Even conservation work may be the cause of technical issues and challenges. The review process, in other words, involves synthesizing information and comprehensively evaluating the progress of the management approaches taken.

## 6.6.3 Revision of a management plan

### 6.6.3.1 *Revision of management approaches*

Reviewing management approaches on a regular and periodic basis can provide new information and, sometimes, uncovers new issues and challenges. As such, it may be necessary to revise the management approach taken; although these may, originally, have been feasible and workable, the review process will inevitably hitherto unknown circumstances. Logically, the tactical approach may need to be revised most frequently. In practice, the result of an operational approach may necessitate more frequent revision than is the case for strategic and tactical approaches. As such, the reviewing of an operational approach is often evaluated as the result of its implementation. By contrast, a strategic approach demands a long-term time scale as it represents the bigger picture of a management plan. Not surprisingly, a strategic approach for the vision of a management plan needs time to come to fruition, or for the degree of progress to be evident. Consequently, sophisticated reviews also require time. In addition, in terms of the type of value, an operational approach tends to focus on traditional value within the physical aspects of a site. On the other hand, a strategic approach places attention on contemporary value that is connected with the public's notions of a site. Obviously, the former is more readily measurable; the latter more complicated and difficult to gauge (see Chapter 6.4.3). An intermediate approach to revision may look at the tactical approach in terms of the results of the operational approach.

Considering the nature of buried archaeological sites, the review of management approaches is very important. The location of a buried site, under the ground, usually limits opportunities to yield relevant information during the planning process; consequently, a plan sets up management approaches with the best information available at that time. It also means, however, that there are more opportunities to supplement this information in the near future. The review process represents a typical opportunity for the acquisition and deployment of new information. Accordingly, the management approaches are necessarily revised, a process that should be repeated regularly. On the other hand, management approaches are necessarily revised on an ad hoc basis. New information directly related to an archaeological site may be produced by scheduled updating of information; by contrast, indirect information may arise on an irregular basis, but may nevertheless be an extremely useful source with which to improve management approaches. Thus, managers and the planning team should take advantage of all relevant information, where on a planned or an ad hoc basis.

#### 6.6.3.2 *Revision of a management plan*

From a long-term perspective, the vision of a management plan should necessarily be revised by the reviewing the management approaches. In fact, the revision of the vision is almost comparable to the production of a new management plan. In a logical sense, the vision of a management plan is the fundamental target, the bigger picture. All tactical and operational approaches

are defined by a strategic approach to the vision of the management plan. Thus, changes to the vision can necessitate an entire new management plan, or else, when the vision of a plan has been achieved (and this is uncovered by the review process), a new plan with new vision is necessarily put together.

However, in reality, the vision of a management plan is often difficult to achieve in clearly measurable terms. For instance, many plans in South Korea put forward as their vision 'to enhance significance of a site to the public'; however, it is extremely difficult to quantify whether or not this has been achieved. In this case, the vision should be transposed across management plans, or else adjusted to be more feasible or measurable. In any case, a strategic approach to the vision necessarily leads to setting up both new tactical and new operational approaches.

## 7 Conclusion

### 7.1 Summary of research

The management of archaeological sites has become a crucial issue in South Korea as the interest in the culture and history of the nation has increased. Sometimes, the issues that emerge as a result are controversial, especially with regard to buried archaeological sites and those developments that have taken place since the 1990s (Chapter 1). In order to deal with these issues, this research has attempted to develop a holistic management-planning model. This research began by exploring the transformation and changes in thinking and ideas in international trends (Chapter 2). This part provided an intellectual foundation with which to identify the specific issues and challenges in South Korea. In order to understand the trends, the research used four contexts: 'Who', 'Why', 'What', and 'How', each with their own detailed issues (Chapter 2). The South Korean issues and challenges were identified through interviews and questionnaires with South Korean professionals (Chapter 4), and case studies (Chapters 3), and then combined with a wider literature review in order to identify key issues (Chapter 4).

As a result of analysis of South Korean issues and challenges, a holistic model took on board three broad principles – participatory planning, the transparent assessment of diverse values, and defined management approaches (Chapter 5). Based upon these principles, a model had four key stages, with detailed steps set out in Chapter 6.

The first part is 'Identifying' (Chapter 6.2 & 6.3); this stage attempts to identify the challenges which a site confronts. For this, this stage consists of 'Building a planning team', 'Documentation' for the Stage 1, and 'Mission Statement' for the Stage 2. The planning team should involve professionals who have professional knowledge and information related to a site, and also the public who are associated with the site. This broad-based planning team can provide a variety of information on traditional and contemporary values. As result of the 'Identifying - Documentation' stage, the 'Mission Statement' is drawn up to include the 'Vision', 'Aims' and 'Short-term goals' of a management plan in the Stage 2.

The third stage is 'Assessment' (Chapter 6.4). This stage is grounded upon an understanding of diverse values – both traditional and contemporary. The result of the stage is a 'Statement of Significance', which is commonly absent from planning in South Korea. More importantly, this stage involves the assessment criteria for diverse values for sound decision-making.

The fourth stage, 'Responding', yields strategic, tactical, and operational and management approaches including the designation criteria and buffer zone, conservation work, post-treatment of excavations and so on. (Chapter 6.5).

The last stage is 'Reviewing' (Chapter 6.6), which involves updating information through periodic review. As a result of the 'Reviewing' stage, the plan may be revised.

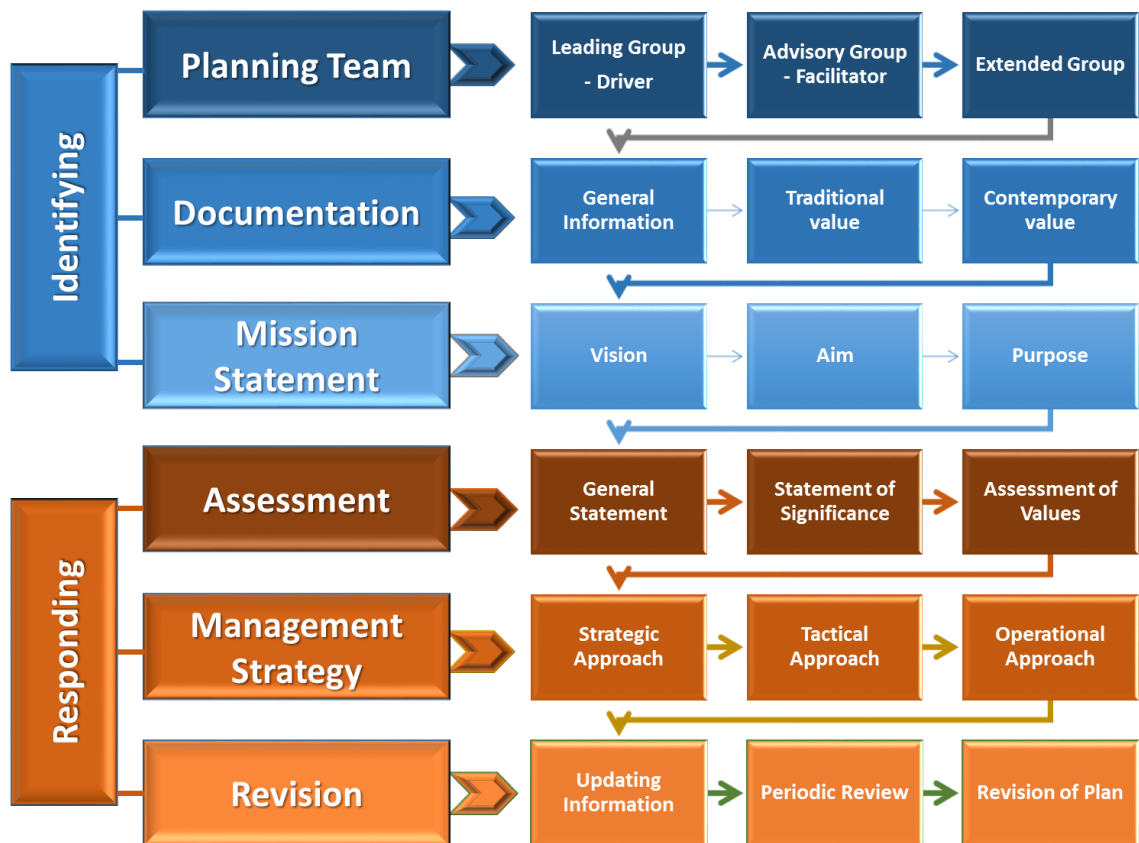


Figure 122: Diagram of steps of a holistic management planning model for buried archaeological sites in South Korea.

These procedures of a holistic model may seem to comprise a linear step model (Figure 122). The model, however, is more complicated and dynamic. Figure 123 illustrates the logical structure of research including a conceptual diagram of the holistic management planning model. First of all, the whole research progress is interrelated. In broad sense, 'Stage 1. Identifying' involves the issues of 'Who' and 'Why' and the fundamental principle for this stage is the 'participatory planning process', which emerges out of issues pertaining to 'Who' and 'Why' (Chapter 5.1). In 'Stage 1. Identifying', therefore, the systemic involvement of a wide range of stakeholders, depending on the association between the stakeholder and the site, results in a team that realises the 'participatory' principle. Moreover, this wide range of stakeholders can help identify those challenges which a site

confronts, including contemporary values, which is another key element of the holistic model as well as the 'Stage 3. Assessment'. The Stage 2, 'Mission Statement', which is a result of the 'Identifying' stage, should cover diverse challenges related to the traditional and contemporary values as a form of vision, aim and short-term goals.

The diverse values provided by the participatory planning process are also an important context of 'Stage 3. Assessment'. This stage logically corresponds to issues of 'What'. The result of this stage, the 'Statement of Significance' which is commonly absent from planning in South Korea, emerges out of an understanding of these diverse values. More importantly, this understanding plays an important role with which to deal with South Korean challenges, including transparent decision-making in managing buried sites. An urgent issue in South Korean rescue archaeology, sound decision-making is highly important, however there is little in the way of rational criteria based on diverse values. Thus, this research attempts to suggest quantitative criteria for diverse values, including traditional and contemporary values. It is expected that the decisions made by these criteria will be both transparent and appropriate. Accordingly, the principles behind a holistic model, participatory planning and transparent decision-making, are closely correlated and fundamental to the holistic whole, representing 'Stage 1 & 2. Identifying – Documentation & Mission



Statement' and 'Stage 3. Assessment' of a model. Consequently, these stages should be regarded as interrelated.

'Stage 4. Responding' is likely to be similarly interrelated, as a result of the relationship between the previous stages, particularly given its practical derivation from these stages. The management approaches in the 'Responding' stage are linked to the transparent assessment of diverse values and can include feasible, workable, and site-specific approaches. In addition, these approaches correspond with the vision, aim and short-term goals of the Mission Statement in the 'Stage 2'. In reality, management approaches often prioritise sites on the basis of the grades of their values, as arrived at in the legal designation; this requires the selection and weighting of values for interpretation and presentation approaches, including those that relate to an on-site museum or else to conservation work; this process is used in order to facilitate rational decisions-making with regards to archaeological excavations and post-treatment of the excavations. The defined management approaches in 'Stage 4. Responding' includes strategic approaches to the vision, tactical approaches to aims and operational approaches to short-term goals, which together underpin decision-making, comprising a transparent assessment of diverse values of a site. These defined approaches will be examined and assessed in 'Stage 5. Reviewing'. This is likely to represent the last stage of the management planning process, but it can also be regarded as a re-starting of this process.

Documentation from 'Stage 1' may need to be updated, in an approach that makes recourse to the principles of documentation. Using these principles a periodic review assesses the achievement and progress of the management approaches in 'Stage 4 Responding'. Revision of the management plan results from these steps; if strategic approaches have led to the achievement of the initial vision, new goals need to be put in place. The tactical approaches and operational approaches which are corresponding to the aim and short-term goals of a plan may have progressed or been achieved, it is also possible that new challenges might have emerged over the intervening period; in this case, approaches are necessarily adjusted. To sum up, all of the stages and steps for the stages in a holistic management planning model are logically interrelated; moving through them is not a linear or singular process; rather it is a repetitive task.

The holistic model in this research focused on buried archaeological sites in South Korea because this type of site is the most difficult to manage due to its fragility and invisibility (Chapter 1.2), as well as representing, since the 1990s, one of the most urgent points of conflict in South Korea. However, the principles of a holistic model (Chapter 5) are of wider applicability and can be extended in relation to other types of resource. As the most complicated type of archaeological resource, due to the typical nature, the procedures and steps described - Mission Statement, Statement of Significance and assessment criteria

for diverse values - offer all of the necessary avenues for a classic management planning framework.

## 7.2 Contribution and Expectation

This research focuses on the South Korean approaches to buried archaeological sites, by placing this within the context of international perspectives in fields such as Archaeological Site Management, Public Archaeology, Cultural Heritage Management, Museum Studies and Heritage Studies. These establish an intellectual framework, raising issues of 'values' and 'the public'. This research took advantage of a series of research process, which start from an understanding of diverse values and the importance of the public, to develop a holistic model. In order to establish feasible and workable approaches, the model develops stages cognisant of the issues and challenges in South Korea (Figure 123).

As a combination of intellectual frameworks and issue-based practical approaches, this research hopes to contribute to the development of Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea. The holistic model devised in this research aims to build a sound decision-making framework for the management of archaeological resources in South Korea, which has been lacking an academic context for the field of Archaeological Resource Management (see Chapter 4). This research is the first step.

Professionals in South Korea related to archaeological resource management have begun to advance the notions of 'values' and 'the public', transforming the paradigm of archaeology from protection of the archaeological resource (from economic development), to a balance between protection and use of archaeological sites. Not surprisingly, a number of issues and challenges have been raised, with a range of responses, including the revision of relevant laws, and the emergence of new academic fields including Archaeological Resource Management and Public Archaeology.

This research, which began with international intellectual frameworks and theoretical grounding, and moved to specific approaches in South Korea, hopes to be a turning point for the management of archaeological resources in country. However, further research is required to develop an effective approach to the management of all types of cultural resources in South Korea, to extend the approaches suggested by this research to other types of cultural resource.

In conclusion, this research hopes to impact on the development of Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea, and in doing so, contribute to the role archaeological resources can play for the public.

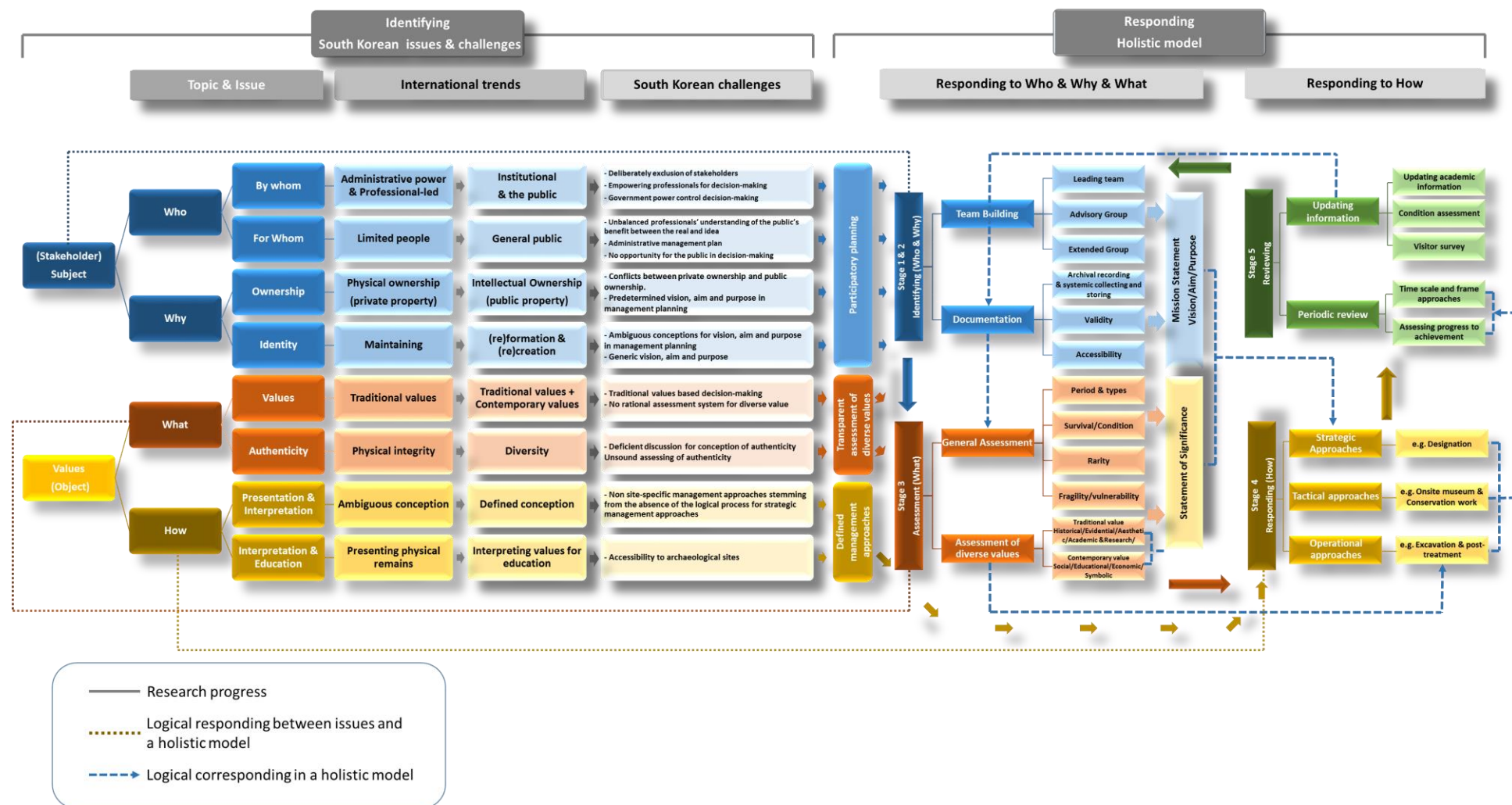


Figure 123: Logical progress of the research and a holistic model.



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## 1 Appendix 1: The first interview questionnaire

General question (Tick-on type)	Open question
<p><b>2.1</b> Have you taken any class or course relevant to Heritage field?</p> <p>1) Yes (title of class or course; ) 2) No</p> <p><b>2.2</b> Have you thought about the need of Archaeological Resource Management or relevant academic fields?</p> <p>1) Yes 2) No</p>	<p>3.1 Recently some Korean Universities have opened the courses relevant to heritage studies: what do you think about the courses?</p>
<p><b>2.3</b> What kind of site value is most important when you suggest your opinion after the archaeological investigation?</p> <p>1)Social 2) cultural 3) historical 4) economic 5) political 6)other</p> <p><b>2.4</b> How much appropriate is the current management of archaeological sites in Korea since the revision of Cultural Heritage Special Law in 1990s?</p> <p>1)100% ----- 0</p> <p><b>2.5</b> Which issue would be the most urgent or conflict in current Korean Archaeology among following issues?</p> <p>1)quality of investigation 2) academic research 3) physical conservation 4) presentation and interpretation 5) Other ( )</p>	<p>3.2 Relevant to various contemporary issues in South Korean archaeology, what is the main reason for these issues?</p> <p>3.3 Particularly, what is the main reason for the conflict of decision making for the preservation of archaeological sites in Korea today?</p> <p>3.4 In your position or point of view, what should we consider for the preservation of archaeological sites?</p>
<p><b>2.6</b> How much your suggestion effect on the decision making process?</p> <p>1)100% ----- -- 0%</p> <p><b>2.7</b> What is the most important aspect to make decision relevant to the protection of archaeological sites?</p> <p>1)Social 2) Political 3) Economical 4) Academic 5) Other ( )</p> <p><b>2.8</b> How much effective is the current management planning process of archaeological sites now?</p>	<p>3.5 Particularly, in the case of making decision for preservation method, what kind of things should be considered before and after the archaeological investigation?</p> <p>3.6 In your position or point of view, what are the difficulties in the process of decision making?</p>

1)Best 2) better 3) good 4) worse 5) worst	
<p><b>2.9</b> In the process of management planning, which part planners should have more attention?</p> <p>1)Documentation 2) conservation 3) presentation 4) interpretation</p> <p><b>2.10</b> Who is in main charge in managing and management planning of archaeological sites in Korea now?</p> <p>1)Archaeologist 2) Historian 3) Conservator 4) Government officer 5) other</p> <p><b>2.11</b> In terms of administrative management of sites, which part should take main responsibility for sites?</p>	<p>3.7 In the management planning process, what kind of value should be considered, and why is it?</p> <p>3.8 In terms of a different role of relevant professionals in the planning process, who should take main responsibility, and why?</p> <p>3.9 What is the main purpose of management plan, and why?</p> <p>3.10 Do you have any suggestions or principles which should be considered in the management planning?</p> <p>3.11 Do you have any good example or suggestion for improvement of current management of archaeological sites in South Korea?</p>

## 2 Appendix 2: The questionnaire (SurveyMonkey)

### Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea

This survey aims to gather information which will contribute towards Hwajong Lee's PhD thesis on South Korean Archaeological Resource Management.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify crucial issues and problems, which concern the protection, management and use of South Korean cultural heritage. The term 'Cultural Heritage' in this questionnaire, is taken to mean a wide range of cultural, historic, and archaeological resources, whether they are protected or not.

**1. This questionnaire is anonymous, but if you would be prepared to answer additional follow-up questions please provide your name & email address**

-	<input type="text"/>
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Detailed contact

**2. This questionnaire is anonymous, but if you would be prepared to answer additional follow-up questions please provide your occupation, experience, email address, or contact number.**

Occupation	Experience	Age
-	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

If you have any other occupation, please specify

**3. Until 1950, in general cultural heritage was not the main or important issue in South Korea because Japanese Invasion era, and the Korean War. In this Korean circumstance, When do you think Korean people began to recognize the importance of cultural heritage?**

☐ 1960s

☐ 1970s

☐ 1980s

☐ 1990s

Other (please specify)



**4. What do you think were the main reasons for this growing the awareness ? Please number from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important ).**

	1	2	3	4	5	N/A
Enactment or revision of legal framework (ex. Cultural Heritage Preservation Law)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Beginning of the improvement of quality of life by economic development	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conflicts between the development and the preservation of cultural heritage	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Boosting the Korean identity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>					

**5. In the indicated time and reason above (question 2 and 3), what is the principal purpose of the preservation of archaeological resources in South Korea? Please number from 1 (most important) to 6 (least important).**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	N/A
Cultural and historical resources	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Political resource	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Economical resource	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Academic resource	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Educational resources	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>						

**6. In terms of the conflict between private ownership right and public property, which is the good way to resolve?**

Purchase of land by the governmental body	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Purchase of land by Non governmental organizations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Grant compensation to land owners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sharing benefit with landowners	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Common ownership with the private and public	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>				

**7. Given diverse current issues and threats to archaeological resources in South Korea, what do you think would be the most important actions? Please number from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important )**

						N/A
Improvement of legal framework	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training relevant professionals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Academic research on the field	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Understanding the general public's thought about heritage	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other (please specify)

**8. In current South Korean situation, how much influential actually are the following groups in making decisions on the management of cultural heritage? Please number from 1 (most important) to 8 (least important)**

<input type="text"/>	National government
<input type="text"/>	Local government
<input type="text"/>	Political Policy
<input type="text"/>	Property developers
<input type="text"/>	Tourism
<input type="text"/>	Academics
<input type="text"/>	Non-Governmental Organisations
<input type="text"/>	Local people

**9. In ideal point of view, in the following group which group should be influential in making decision in South Korea? Please number from 1 (most important) to 9 (least important)**

<input type="text"/>	National government
<input type="text"/>	Local government
<input type="text"/>	Political Policy
<input type="text"/>	Property developers
<input type="text"/>	Tourism
<input type="text"/>	Academics
<input type="text"/>	Non-Governmental Organisations
<input type="text"/>	Local people

**10. In your opinion, which values should be prioritised in decision-making? Please number from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important)**

Academic value (ex. historic and cultural)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Social value	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Economic value	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Political value	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Educational value	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>					

**11. What should be the most important activities to be developed at archaeological sites?**

Improvement of physical accessibility	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
On-site presentation for the public	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Interpretation of professional archaeological knowledge for the public	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Development of a site as an educational resources	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Making economic benefit by the site	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="text"/>					

**12. In terms of the participatory decision making process, especially the general public's participation, how much the general public's voice affect on the decision in South Korea?**

Very good	Good	Normal	Bad	Very bad
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**13. In the current South Korean circumstance, which is the issue to make decision difficult in following? Please indicated from 1 (most difficult) to 5 (laest difficult).**

<input type="text"/>	The conflict between economic development and preservation of archaeological resources
<input type="text"/>	The lack of the public's awareness about the archaeological resources
<input type="text"/>	Tneffective legal framework
<input type="text"/>	The lack of understanding diverse values of archaeological resources by relevant experts
<input type="text"/>	The lack of the use of the archaeological resource caused by less understanding the current value

**14. How effecticvely the recently revised legal framwork deal with the relevant issue in South Korea?**

- ☐ Very well  
☐ Well  
☐ Normal  
☐ Bad  
☐ Very bad

**15. What is the main focus of the currently conducted management plans in South Korea?**

- ☐ The conservation plan  
☐ The administrative management plan  
☐ Development plan for economic benefit  
☐ Discover the diverse values

Other (please specify)

**16. What should be developed in management plans in South Korea?**

- ☐ Explicit assessment criteria of diverse values  
☐ Participatory planning process  
☐ Detailed action plan  
☐ Long-term plan  
☐ Revised plan

Other (please specify)

**17. In terms of the educational use of archaeological resource, how much effective in South Korea?**

- ☐ Very well
- ☐ Well
- ☐ Normal
- ☐ Bad
- ☐ Very bad

**18. Relevant to previous question, what should be improved for the use of the sites as an educational resource for young generation? Please number from 1 (most important) to 5 (least important)**

Increasing the the number of visiting the archaeological sites in the term time in middle and high school(14-19 years old students)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Training teachers about archaeological sites	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Increasing the educational programmes in relevant insittutes such as museums	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Putting Archaeology in the offical course of middle and high school (14-19 years old students)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teaching or studying material of archaeological knowledge for students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Other (please specify)

**19. In the current decision making process in the excavation of archaeological sites, who should be involved in the decision mking gouup?**

- ☐ professional archaeological
- ☐ conservator
- ☐ historian
- ☐ local governmental official
- ☐ national governmental official
- ☐ developer
- ☐ representative of local residence
- ☐ NGO

Other (please specify)

**20. Do you have any suggestion or opinion for Archaeological Resource Management in South Korea**



### 3 Appendix 3: Interviewees

	Field archaeologists	Development	Academic		Administrative	Conservation	Museum
			teaching	student			
Form	14	3		4	4	2	
Open discussion		2	2	2 groups	1		1
Sub-total	14	5	2	4	5	2	1
Total	33+2 group of undergraduate students						
Code	AR	DE	AC-	ST	AD	CO	MU
	Code	Name	Organisation		Position	Method	
1	AR1	KIM	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
2	AR2	KIM	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
3	AR3	CHOI	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
4	AR4	YOON	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
5	AR5	CHA	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
6	AR6	KIM	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
7	AR7	MA	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
8	AR8	HWANG	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
9	AR9	KIM	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire and discussion	
10	AR10	KIM	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
11	AR11	LEE	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire	
12	AR12	SO	KIOH		Researcher	Questionnaire and discussion	
13	AR13	LEE	Hanyang University Museum		Researcher	Questionnaire	
14	AR14	KIM	Hanyang University Museum		Researcher	Questionnaire	
15	DE1	JEONG	Korea Land & Housing Cooperation		Researcher	Questionnaire and discussion	
16	DE2	YOON	Korea Land & Housing Cooperation		Researcher	Questionnaire and discussion	
17	DE3	JEONG	Korea Land & Housing Cooperation		Researcher	Discussion	
18	DE4	KIM	Korea Land & Housing Cooperation		Researcher	Discussion	
19	DE5	YOO	Gyeonggi Urban Innovation Cooperation		Researcher	Questionnaire	
20	AC1	CHOI	Dep. of Cultural Properties Management in NUCH		Director	Discussion (partly recording)	
21	AC2	JEONG	Dep. Archaeology in NUCH		Professor	Discussion (partly recording)	
22	ST1	JANG	Dep of Archaeology in NUCH		BA student	Questionnaire	
23	ST2	PARK	Dep. of Archaeology in NUCH		BA student	Questionnaire	
24	ST3	LEE	Dep. of Archaeology in NUCH		BA student	Questionnaire	
25	ST4	LEE	Dep. of Archaeology in NUCH		BA student	Questionnaire	
26	ST5	Group1	Dep. of Archaeology in NUCH		BA students	Discussion Notetaking	
27	ST6	Geoup2	Dep. of Cultural Anthropology in Hanyang University		BA students	Discussion Notetaking	
28	AD1	GUN	Korean Cultural Properties Research Institutes Association		Chairman	Discussion and discussion	
29	AD2	WOO	Korean Cultural Properties Research Institutes Association		Researcher	Questionnaire	

30	AD3	KANG	Researcher of Korean Cultural Properties Research Institutes Association	Researcher	Questionnaire
31	AD4	KONG	Researcher of Korean Cultural Properties Research Institutes Association	Researcher	Questionnaire
32	AD5	KIM	Yeoncheon (Jeongokri Site Management office of Yeoncheon at present)	Local government official	Questionnaire
33	CO1	KIM	Hanyang University Museum	Researcher	Questionnaire
34	CO2	KIM	Hanyang University Museum	Researcher	Questionnaire
35	MU1	LEE	Jeongok Prehistoric Museum	Team Leader	Discussion